



THE SECOND WORLD WAR AND ITS IMPACT ON ECUADOR

The Second World War was the largest and the most violent armed conflict that opposed, between 1939 and 1945, the Allied countries with a democratic ideology and the Axis coalition with a totalitarian character.

At the beginning of the war, the first block consisted of the United Kingdom, France, Poland, the United States of America, China and the Soviet Union. The war was started by Germany, but later it was joined by Italy and Japan, making the Axis Powers block.

The start of the war was in September 1, 1939 with the invasion of Poland by Nazi Germany. Many countries which weren't initially involved joined the war later as a result of events such as the Japanese attack on Pearl Harbor.

The Second World War was not only fought in the European and Pacific battlefields. Some other small nations also were involved in this huge struggle. The Republic of Ecuador was one of these nations, playing an important role during it.

Ecuador had been experiencing an economic crisis, which lasted until the Second World War when Ecuador sided with the Allies and profited from raw material exports. However, Peru took the opportunity to seize the undeveloped Amazonian territories from Ecuador, causing a war with Peru in 1941 and forcing the Ecuadorian government to fall and sign the Rio Protocol in 1942.

Over seventy million people, the majority civilians, were killed, making the Second World War the deadliest conflict in human history.

Keywords: Second World War, the United States of America, Pearl Harbor, Ecuador, 1941, the Rio Protocol



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“THE SECOND WORLD WAR AND ITS IMPACT ON ECUADOR”

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DEDICATORY

With all my love and gratitude I dedicate this thesis to God. Thanks for his patience and unconditional love. He gave me the opportunity to live and have a wonderful family. So this work is for him.

I also dedicate this work to my parents who gave me the life and who have been always with me. Thanks dad, thanks mom for giving me a career for my future and for believing in me. This work is also dedicated to my brothers who have been always supporting me with their advice. I love you with all my heart!

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Therefore, I am so grateful with each one of you, thanks for your support, love, and advice. Thanks for not leaving me alone and be part of my life.

MARIA JOSE



DEDICATORY

I want to dedicate this work for the most important people in my life, my father, my sisters and my brothers who have always been giving me the courage that I needed in my career.

However; there is a person who is the indirect owner of this whole work. She is the best friend that god has given me. I have failed her lot of times now, this is the best opportunity to compensate her for the unconditional support that she has always given me. She is the only person who has been next to me in good and hard times especially in the last ones. She has cried with me, she has suffered with me and now I know that she is smiling with me. This is the least thing that I can do for her comparative to what she has done for me. This work is because of you. This work is for you. This work is yours. I love you MOM.

DIANA



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INTRODUCTION

World War II, also known as the Second World War, was considered the largest conflict in history, spanning the entire world and involving more countries than any other war, as well as introducing powerful new weapons, and culminating in the first use of new nuclear weapons.

After several years of fighting and destruction, the Allies won over the Axis. However, many people died during the Second World War.

When the war began many nations around the world decided to join forces in order to defeat the Axis Powers; Ecuador was not the exception, playing important role in the war. It had to suffer some important changes; however, most of them helped Ecuador to improve its development as a nation.

Therefore, this thesis, "The Second World War and its Impact on Ecuador," presents important topics which will help people to understand the war's big struggle, its beginnings, its reasons, its development, and especially the impacts that it produced on Ecuador and how it reacted to them.

A war is one of the most tragic things in our world. It is even sadder that it usually comes around at least once in our lifetime. A careful consideration of the past may show humans a better way in the years to come, enabling the new generations to make up for the errors committed in the past, thus making them able to rule this vast, rapidly developing world, in accordance with the needs and the dignity of mankind. Also, the numerous new technological developments, such as nuclear energy and electronics, and all their benefits will help new generations to create a more peaceful world.



CHAPTER I

THE SECOND WORLD WAR

1.1 THE BEGINNING OF THE SECOND WORLD WAR

1.1.1 THE UNITED STATES AND THE SECOND WORLD WAR

Most Americans were isolationists during the two decades of World War I. In this same period, their government played an important leading role on the world scene. American attitudes toward foreign affairs seemed contradictory during those years. Americans had become absorbed in their own problems. The business boom, sports, automobiles, movies, radio, etc., all served to distract a generation uninterested in reform and world affairs. The United States remained out of the League of Nations and began to distrust wartime allies who resented repaying what they had borrowed from America. At the same time, the nation cooperated with other countries in measures designed to keep the peace.

In addition, the United States began to sign some treaties in order to preserve peace. In 1928, the United States and France signed the *Kellogg-Briand Pact*, and agreed to “outlaw war.” Within eight years, sixty nations had promised to renounce war, including Japan and the United States.

During the early Roosevelt years, attempts to legislate peace continued, not in the form of treaties, but in attempts to assure future neutrality. As the *Depression* grew worse, the public believed that connections between government and business had existed, and vowed to avoid similar developments in the future. “Peace at Any Price” became a popular slogan in those years.

As conflict appeared in Asia and Europe, Congress acted to prevent the President from leading the country into any new armed struggle. Congress adopted neutrality acts, which restricted trade with belligerents so as to exclude



implements of war and other items which the President might consider helpful to either side. American shipping was to keep out of war zones.

As Hitler took over Germany, and he and Mussolini of Italy showed their aggressive purposes, American public opinion began to turn strongly against them. The German pogroms against the Jews and others shocked a nation based on freedom of religion. Japanese brutalities in China increased concern with the Far East. President Roosevelt did urge European leaders to keep peace. At the same time, he began to increase other defense preparations.

On September 1, 1939, Hitler attacked Poland, and World War II began. Once again, Great Britain and France faced Germany. This time, however, Russia was neutral, having signed a non-aggression pact with Hitler a week before, in which the two nations agreed not go to war. Thus, Hitler could concentrate his attack on the western Allies.

From the beginning, America was emotionally committed to the Allied cause. At the same time, the country was also determined to remain neutral, but not indifferent. Roosevelt recognized that this division existed within most Americans' minds. Two days after the outbreak of hostilities, he spoke to the people in a fireside chat, telling them "This nation will remain a neutral nation, but I cannot ask that every American remain neutral in thought as well. ¹" A public opinion showed that nine of ten Americans wanted an allied victory. Few doubted that if the English and French were threatened with defeat, America would once more come to their aid.

The German blitzkrieg (the immense German attack on Poland, which means "lightening war") rolled over Poland in less than a month. During the winter of 1939-40, Hitler settled down on the French border for what came to be known as the "*phony war*."

¹ SOBEL, Robert, "The Collier Quick and Easy Guide to American History", The Crowell Collier Publishing Company, 1962; page 132.



Meanwhile, the Soviet Union attacked Finland and defeated that country in three months. This act of aggression moved Americans toward an interventionist position.

In April, Norway was invaded by the Germans. In May, they attacked the Netherlands and Belgium. The *Battle of France* began with a massive German assault in early May, and the nation fell in little more than a month.

During this period, America was preparing itself, and aid to Great Britain began to flow across the Atlantic, when it was threatened by a German invasion in September of 1940. The British could buy all they desired, if they paid for the supplies and transported them in their own ships.

The United States gave a gift to England of fifty destroyers in return for naval bases in the Caribbean. The Congress adopted the Selective Service Act, which provided for the drafting of over a million men in its first year. For the first time, the United States conscripted a sizable army while still at peace.

On the other hand, the campaign of 1940 was held in an atmosphere of tension. The Republicans had used the occasion to mount an attack on the President, who had decided to run for a third term. During this campaign, Roosevelt's opponent was Wendell Willkie, a strong and faithful man, who belonged to the Republican Party. However, the President won easily, although some Democrats were opposed to breaking the two-term precedent. However, Roosevelt prepared to fight for his policies to aid England and at the same time to keep America out of war and to help the Allies to the point of war if necessary.

In December, Roosevelt set up the Office of Production Management, with William Knudsen as its director. The OPM was charged with coordinating defense production and supplying Great Britain with whatever goods she needed, and agencies relating to the war effort proliferated.



In his annual message to Congress, Roosevelt requested “Lend-Lease” for the Allies. Great Britain had exhausted its supply of foreign currencies, and could no longer pay for war goods from America.

The Johnson Act of 1934 forbade loans to nations which had defaulted on payments of their World War I debts to the United States. Roosevelt recommended that America lend war goods to Great Britain, who would return or replace them after the war.

Senator Taft remarked that lending arms was like lending chewing gum, you do not want it back. Still, the program passed, and \$7 billion was appropriated to aid the Allies.

Roosevelt began to envision the postwar world even before the United States entered the war. In January, he outlined the “Four Freedoms” on which he hoped that world would be founded: freedom of speech and expression, freedom of worship, freedom from want, and freedom from fear. On August 14, Franklin D. Roosevelt met Winston Churchill (Prime Minister of England) for the first time, and together, they drew up the *Atlantic Charter*, a set of democratic principles that allied the two nations in the same struggle. The Atlantic Charter outlined post-war aims of both countries. German protests against this unneutral act were rejected. When the American destroyer Greer was sunk in September, after trailing a German submarine and sending its location to the British, Roosevelt said, “No act of violence will keep us from maintaining intact the two bulwarks of defense: First, our line of supply to the enemies of Hitler, and second, the freedom of our shipping on the high seas.”² The President ordered American ships to sink German vessels, as an undeclared naval war broke out between the two nations. In addition, Japanese planes bombed the American gunboat Panay. Roosevelt sent a stiff note to Tokyo, and the Japanese, realizing they had gone too far, both apologized and paid damages.

² SOBEL, Robert, “The Collier Quick and Easy Guide to American History”, The Crowell Collier Publishing Company, 1962; page 133.



With this, America and Japan entered upon a period of growing tension and antagonism. And by 1941, formal American participation in the European war seemed imminent.

During some conferences, the American government established its main objective, which was keeping the Japanese force below that of the American and British Pacific fleets.

After World War I, Japan clearly was the most powerful nation in Asia. As the Soviet Union withdrew to a defensive posture, and as China became embroiled in civil wars, Japan decided to seize what it considered its opportunity to gain control of all Asia.

As America turned its back on the Far East in order to concentrate on Europe, the Japanese continued their advance. And Tokyo decided to join the alliance between Germany and Italy known as the Rome-Berlin Axis, and the United States moved closer to a conflict with Japan.

In December, Roosevelt authorized what proved to be the first of several loans to China. At the same time, he began to clamp down on shipments of war supplies to Japan. He also refused to export scrap iron, steel, and oil. The Japanese, on their part, would not accept those decisions which they considered unwarranted. In March 1941, both nations met to discuss common problems, Washington insisted on Japanese withdrawals, and Tokyo rejected these demands.

As Japan moved toward the Dutch East Indies, rich in tin, rubber, petroleum, and quinine, American pressures raised up. In July, Japan's assets in America were frozen.

In October, the moderate Konoye resigned, and was replaced as Premier by General Hideki Tojo, whose aggressive plans were well known on both sides of the Pacific. Four months later, Nomura (Japan's Ambassador) made a last effort at peace, suggesting mutual acceptance of the *Status Quo* in East Asia and a resumption of normal relations between the two nations. On November 25, the



Japanese fleet began moving secretly toward Hawaii. A week later, Japan's Privy Council decided for war. The fleet moved eastward while conversations continued between the two nations.

On the morning of Sunday, December 7, 1941 Japanese planes attacked Pearl Harbor, Hawaii. Wave after wave of Japanese aircraft screamed into the harbor. Franklin D. Roosevelt wasted no time in reacting to the attack on Pearl Harbor. By the afternoon of December 7, Roosevelt had ordered protection for Washington D.C., major cities along the western coast, major bridges, and dozens of other security precautions in the event of another wave of enemy aggression. The next day, Roosevelt delivered a speech to Congress asking for a declaration of war. The beginning of the speech would become famous in America history. "Yesterday, December 7, 1941 – a date which will live in infamy, the United States of America was suddenly and deliberately attacked by naval and air forces of the Empire of Japan...³" Three days later, Germany and Italy declared war on the United States. In the space of only two days, the United States had gone

THE WAR AT HOME

Roosevelt's eloquence, confidence, love of action, and ability to communicate with ordinary people made him one of the great leaders of a nation at war. His abiding interest in naval ships and strategy, and experience as Assistant Secretary of the Navy, helped him form a close working relationship with his military commanders. This experience prepared him for his future role as Commander-in-Chief of the Armed Forces during World War II. The task was greater in 1941, but was carried out with greater efficiency.

Wars had had their effects on social, political, economic, and cultural life; and the Second World War, the greatest war that this nation had ever fought, was

³ <http://www.oppapers.com/essays/Attack-Poland/13361>



no exception. The Second World War developed and accelerated the transformation of American life. The explosion of war put an end to the privation and poverty of tens of millions of American citizens. War industries were desperate for new workers, and Americans who had been either jobless or dependent on government found new opportunities on these work programs.

The war years also transformed American domestic life by leading millions of American women into war industries and the work force. “Rosie the Riveter” symbolized the millions of women who performed jobs abandoned by men who had been drafted into the armed forces or benefited from the dramatic growth of war industries.

The war also brought a remarkable range of technological invention in this time. Radar made possible not only the conduct of aerial war on a global scale but also the explosive growth of the international airline industry; jet and rocket engines were also revolutionized. The war brought extraordinary improvements in the speed and reliability of airplanes and automobiles.

Moreover, the war had dramatic influences on millions of American servicemen and servicewomen, and on the tens of millions of Americans on the home front.

Far more than the First World War, the experience of the Second World War taught Americans to think of themselves as part of the entire world, and of the United States as the most powerful nation in the world. The war taught Americans to think of events in Asia or Europe as having either direct or important indirect effects on their daily lives.

Even though the war tried to vindicate democracy and equality against the threat of totalitarianism, American practices of segregation and discrimination continued both in American society and within the war effort. After the end of the Second World War, the heroism of African-American soldiers, sailors, and pilots was largely ignored until the rediscovery of African-American history by the large society during the civil rights of the 1960s. The single greatest violation of individual rights in the war years, however, was suffered by



Japanese-Americans. Persons of Japanese ancestry born in the United States were citizens by birth; they also suffered discrimination at the hands of their neighbors even before the Japanese Empire's attack on Pearl Harbor, Hawaii.

In late 1941 and early 1942, many Americans in the western United States feared that their neighbors would aid Japanese forces in a feared invasion, and that many Japanese aliens and Japanese-Americans already were spies and saboteurs. These fears were without foundation. However, fears within the civilian population and suspicion within the American military fed one another; state politicians demanded that the government monitor or even round up all persons of Japanese ancestry. In February 1942, the war Department persuaded President Franklin D. Roosevelt to issue *Executive Order* 9066, under which the government forced more than 100,000 Japanese resident aliens and American citizens of Japanese ancestry living along the West Coast to abandon their homes, property, and businesses, and accept forced relocation to concentration camps.

As the war progressed and news of the Holocaust became more and more disturbing, pressure grew to address the urgent needs of refugees. In January 1944, FDR issued an executive order establishing the War Refugee Board, which aided in the rescuing of Jews and other refugees during the remainder of the war. Also in 1944, the United States held its first wartime presidential election. There was little doubt that Roosevelt would run for a fourth term, however; he was re-nominated easily.

To help the devastated areas of Europe and Asia, America became the major supporter of the United Nations Relief and Rehabilitation Administration (UNRRA), established in 1943. The UNRRA provided shelter for millions of people displaced by the war, and delivered 22 million tons of supplies and tools to rebuild farms, villages, and cities.

President Roosevelt believed that once the Axis powers were defeated, world peace could only be guaranteed if the Allies created a new international organization to replace the League of Nations. A joint statement issued by the



United States and the Allies on November 1, 1943, recognized the necessity of establishing a general international organization dedicated to international peace and security. So, one of Roosevelt's wishes was the formation of the United Nations Organizations.

UNITED NATIONS ORGANIZATIONS

The United Nations Organizations was founded two weeks after FDR's death on April 25, 1945, after the end of World War II by the victorious allied powers, with the hope that it would act to prevent and intervene in conflicts between nations and make future wars impossible or limited.

The idea for the future United Nations as an international organization emerged in declarations signed at the wartime Allied conferences in Moscow and in Tehran in 1943.

From August to October 1944, representatives of France, the Republic of China, the United Kingdom, the United States, and the USSR met to elaborate plans at the Dumbarton Oaks Conference in Washington, D.C. Those and later talks created the possible purposes of the United Nations Organization, its membership and organs, as well as arrangements to maintain international peace and security and international economic and social cooperation.

NAMING

President Franklin D. Roosevelt first suggested using the name United Nations to refer to the wartime Allies. The term "United Nations" was first used by Winston Churchill and Franklin D. Roosevelt on January 1, 1942 with the Declaration by United Nations, which united the Allied countries of World War II under the Atlantic Charter, and soon became a term widely used to refer to their alliance.

On April 25, 1945, a conference of 800 delegates from 50 nations met in San Francisco to establish the new world organization. The 50 nations represented at the conference signed the Charter of the United Nations and two months later



on June 26, Poland, which had no representation at the conference, but which had had a reserved place among the original signatories, added its name later, bringing the total of original signatories to 51. The UNO came into existence on October 24, 1945. The League of Nations formally dissolved itself on April 18, 1946 and transferred its mission to the United Nations.

ACTIVITIES

The United Nations expressed the hope of mankind to avoid future wars. It had achieved considerable prominence in the social area promoting human rights, economic development, decolonization, health, and education, and interesting itself in refugees and trade.

The founders of the UN had high hopes that it would act to prevent conflicts between nations and make future wars impossible.

ORGANIZATION

The United Nations system was based on five principal organs: the General Assembly, the Security Council, the Economic and Social Council (ECOSOC), the Secretariat, and the International Court of Justice.

Of its major organs, the largest was the General Assembly, in which each member has one vote. The Security Council, which included the Big Three plus China and France as permanent members, was charged with the primary responsibility of keeping the peace.

From the first, it was realized that most of the UN's power lay in the Security Council, which in turn was dominated by the United States and the Soviet Union. If these two states agreed on a policy, it could be carried out. If not, the organization would become powerless. For a few months after the war, the feeling of comradeship that had grown during the fighting remained. Then there occurred a series of incidents which grew into major tensions and World War II ended.



1.1.2 THE ATTACK ON PEARL HARBOR

The attack on Pearl Harbor or Hawaii Operation, Operation Z, as the Japanese Imperial General Headquarters called it, was a surprise military strike conducted by the Japanese Navy against the United States' naval base at Pearl Harbor, Hawaii, on the morning of Sunday, December 7, 1941. The Japanese saw the base as the peak of America's military supremacy in the Pacific Ocean. If a catastrophic blow could be struck against America at Pearl Harbor, then the Japanese surmised that America would pull out of the region leaving it free for the Japanese to continue their expansion in the Far East.

The Americans saw Pearl Harbor as impenetrable. The naval station could only be approached by narrow waterways that were only 40 feet in depth. Such was the confidence of the naval command at Pearl Harbor that the Pacific Fleet was lined up in what was known as "Battleship Row."

BACKGROUND TO CONFLICT

After the *Meiji Restoration*, Japan embarked on a period of significant economic, political, and military expansion in an apparent effort to achieve links with the Western Powers who had influence in East Asia and/or the Pacific. Members of the government, military and general society heavily influenced the expansion. In order to fund this expansion, Japan embarked on a series of moves that brought it into conflict with neighboring countries, including some of those Powers. These included a war with China in 1894 in which Japan took control of Taiwan, a war with Russia in 1904 in which Japan gained territory in and around China and the Korean peninsula, and in 1910, took control of the entire Korean peninsula. After WWI, the League of Nations awarded Japan custody of most Imperial German possessions and colonies in the Far East and Pacific waters. War between Japan and the United States had been a possibility each nation had been aware of (and developed contingency plans for) since the 1920s, though tensions did not begin to grow seriously until Japan's 1931 invasion of Manchuria. In 1937, having made further progress in constructing a large and modern navy and army, Japan began a large-scale invasion of



mainland China, attacking from Manchuria at several points along China's Pacific coast.

The League of Nations, the United States, the United Kingdom, and the Netherlands disapproved of Japan's actions, and responded with diplomatic pressure, condemning several of these moves. Japan left the League of the Nations because of its objections to Japanese behavior and policy. Japan's later aggression in China resulted in United States and United Kingdom attempts to apply pressure to reduce Japanese aggression. Japan did not back down, but instead continued its military campaign in China and formally aligned itself with the Axis Powers in 1940. The United States stopped shipments of airplanes, machine tools, and aviation gasoline, which was perceived by Japan as an unfriendly act. The U.S.'s response also included economic sanctions, the most important being partial or full embargoes of scrap metal, and closing the Panama Canal to Japanese shipping, and renouncing previously signed trade agreements between the two countries. Again, the Japanese did not back down and, in 1941, moved into northern Indochina. The United States response was to freeze Japanese assets and initiate a complete oil embargo.

Oil was the most crucial resource that Japan needed, as its own supplies were very limited, and none of the territory it had acquired had significant supplies either. In addition to fueling Japanese military operations, oil was vital for much of Japan's core economic activities. Eighty percent of Japan's oil imports came from the U.S. Diplomatic negotiations climaxed with the Hull note of November 26, 1941, which Prime Minister Hideki Tojo described to his cabinet as an ultimatum. Therefore, Japanese nationalists (especially those in the military) felt pressured to make a decision; either comply with the U.S. and UK demands thus backing down from its aggression in China and the surrounding areas, or go to war with the U.S. and UK and perhaps others. The nationalists in charge of Japanese policy decided to pursue the latter option.

Meanwhile, President Franklin D. Roosevelt had earlier moved the Pacific Fleet to Hawaii and ordered a military buildup in the Philippines in the hope of



discouraging Japanese aggression in the Far East. However, the transfer of the U.S. Pacific Fleet from its previous base in San Diego to its new base in Pearl Harbor was seen by the Japanese military as the U.S. readying itself for a potential conflict between the two countries.

Preliminary planning for an attack on Pearl Harbor had begun in early 1941, under the auspices of Admiral Yamamoto, then commanding Japan's Combined Fleet. He won assent to formal planning and training for an attack from the Imperial Japanese Navy General Staff only after much contention with Naval Headquarters, including a threat to resign his command. Full-scale planning was underway by early spring 1941, primarily by Captain Minoru Genda. Over the next several months, pilots trained, equipment was adapted, and intelligence collected. Despite these preparations, Emperor Hirohito did not issue actual approval of the attack plan until November 5, after the third of four Imperial Conferences to consider the matter. The emperor did not give final authorization until December 1. By late 1941, U.S. Pacific bases and facilities had been placed on alert on multiple occasions, because of hostilities between the U.S. and Japan. U.S. officials doubted Pearl Harbor would be the first target in any war with Japan, instead expecting the Philippines to be attacked first, due to the threat it posed to sea-lanes to the south, and the erroneous belief that Japan was not capable of mounting more than one major naval operation at a time.

OBJECTIVES

The attack had several major aims. First, it was supposed to destroy American fleet units, thereby preventing the Pacific Fleet from interfering with a Japanese conquest of the Dutch East Indies. Second, it was a means to buy time for Japan to consolidate her position and increase her naval strength, before the shipbuilding of the Vinson-Walsh Act erased any chance of victory. Finally, it was intended as a blow against American morale, which might discourage further fighting and enable Japan to conquer Southeast Asia without interference.



Making battleships the main target was a means of striking at morale, since they were the prestige ships of any navy at that time. Both Japanese and American strategies were derived from the work of Captain Alfred Mahan, who led battleships and which were decisive in naval warfare. It was also a means of striking at the fighting power of the Pacific Fleet; if it succeeded, it meant the ultimate Pacific battle (decisive battle, in Japanese Navy). With that in mind, Yamamoto intended the Pacific Fleet should be sought and attacked. Japanese planners knew that attacking the U.S. Pacific Fleet while it was at anchor in Pearl Harbor carried two distinct disadvantages: the targeted ships would be in very shallow water, meaning that they could be easily salvaged and possibly repaired; and most of the crews would survive the attack, since many would be on shore leave or would be rescued from the harbor. Despite these concerns, Yamamoto pressed ahead.

Japanese confidence in their ability to achieve a short, victorious war also meant other targets in the harbor; especially the Navy Yard; oil tank farms, and the Submarine Base could safely be ignored, since the war would be over before the influence of these facilities would be felt.

JAPANESE DECLARATION OF WAR

While the attack ultimately took place before a formal declaration of war by Japan, Admiral Yamamoto originally stipulated the attack should not commence until thirty minutes after Japan had informed the United States he considered the peace negotiations at an end. In this way, the Japanese tried both to uphold the conventions of war as well as achieving surprise. Despite these intentions, the attack had already begun when the 5,000 word notification was delivered. Tokyo transmitted the message to the Japanese embassy, which ultimately took too long transcribing the message to deliver it in time, while the U.S. code breakers had already deciphered and translated most of it hours before the Japanese embassy was scheduled to deliver it. While some people described it as a declaration of war, this dispatch neither declared war nor severed diplomatic relations. The declaration of war was printed on the front page of Japan's newspaper in the evening edition on December 8.



JAPANESE PREPARATIONS

The Japanese had been impressed with Admiral Andrew Cunningham's Operation Judgment, the result of which 20 elderly biplanes launched from a carrier force way in advance of the main British base at Alexandria disabled half the Italian battle fleet and forced the withdrawal of the Italian fleet to behind Naples. Admiral Isoroku Yamamoto dispatched a naval delegation to Italy, which concluded that a larger and better supported version of Cunningham's brilliant maneuver could force the U.S. fleet back to California, giving time to achieve control of the oil reserves of the Dutch East Indies. Most important, the delegation returned to Japan with the secret of the shallow-running torpedo, which Cunningham had devised.

The intent of the attack on Pearl Harbor was to neutralize American naval power in the Pacific. Yamamoto himself expected that even a successful attack would gain only a year or so of freedom of action before the U.S. fleet recovered enough to check Japanese advances. Preliminary planning for a Pearl Harbor attack in support of military advance elsewhere began in January 1941 and, after some Imperial Navy factional infighting, the project was finally judged worthwhile. Training for the mission was under way by mid-year. The planned attack depended primarily on the torpedoes, but the weapons of the time required deep water to function. This was a critical problem because Pearl Harbor was shallow, except in dredged channels. Over the summer of 1941, Japan secretly created and tested torpedo modifications that could work properly in a shallow water drop. The effort resulted in the Type 95 torpedo, which inflicted most of the damage to U.S. ships during the attack. Japanese technicians also produced special armor-piercing bombs; these were able to penetrate the armored decks of battleships and cruisers when dropped from 10,000 feet (3,000 m), if they could actually hit them.

On November 26, 1941, a fleet including six aircraft carriers commanded by Japanese Vice Admiral Chuichi Nagumo left Hitokappu Bay in the Kuril Islands under orders for strict radio silence bound for Hawaii. The aircraft carriers



involved in the attack were: Akagi, Hiryu, Kaga, Shokaku, Soryu, and Zuikaku; two fast battleships, two heavy cruisers, one light cruiser, nine destroyers, and three fleet submarines. The carriers had a total of 423 planes, including torpedo bombers, twenty fleet submarines, and eight tankers for refueling. The Japanese task force and its air group were larger than any previous aircraft carrier-based strike force.

UNITED STATES PREPAREDNESS

U.S. civilian and military intelligence forces had between them good and important information suggesting additional Japanese aggression throughout the summer and fall before the attack. None of it specifically indicated an attack against Pearl Harbor. Public press reports during that summer and fall, including Hawaiian newspapers, contained extensive reports on the tension and developments in the Pacific. During November, all Pacific commands, including both the Navy and Army in Hawaii, were explicitly warned that war with Japan was expected in the very near future and on the day of the attack, General Marshall sent an imminent war warning message to Pearl Harbor specifically. In Hawaii, there were several indications of the incoming attack, but neither of those warnings caused increased local readiness by defenders nor produced an active alert status. The attack arrived at a Pearl Harbor that was in fact unprepared: anti-aircraft weapons were not manned, ammunition was locked down, anti-submarine measures were not implemented, combat air patrols were not flying, scouting aircraft not in the air at first light, etc.

U.S. signals intelligence, through the Army Signal Intelligence Service and the Office of Naval Intelligence, intercepted Japanese diplomatic traffic and had broken many Japanese ciphers, though none carried either strategic or tactical military information. Distribution of this intelligence was confusing and did not include material from Japanese military traffic, as this was not available. At best, the information was partial, seemingly contradictory, or insufficiently distributed. Warnings were sent to all U.S. commands in the Pacific, but despite the growing information pointing to a new phase of Japanese aggression, there was little information specific to Pearl Harbor.



American commanders were warned that tests had shown that shallow-water torpedoeing was possible, but no one in charge in Hawaii fully appreciated the danger posed by new developments. Expecting that Pearl Harbor had a natural defense against torpedo attack, the U.S. Navy failed to deploy torpedo nets or baffles, which they judged cumbersome to ordinary operations, and so a low priority.

Due to a claimed shortage of long-distance planes, long reconnaissance patrols were not being made as often as was required for adequate coverage, or as were possible. At the time of the attack, the Army, which was responsible for defense of Pearl Harbor, was in training mode rather than on actual alert. Most of its portable guns were stowed, with the ammunition locked in separate armories. To avoid upsetting property owners, officers did not keep the guns dispersed around the Pearl Harbor base (i.e., on private property).

BREAKING OFF NEGOTIATIONS

The attack was a major engagement of World War II. It occurred before a formal declaration of war and before the last part of a message was delivered to the State Department in Washington, D.C. The Japanese Embassy in Washington had been instructed to deliver it immediately prior to the scheduled time of the attack in Hawaii. The last part arrived not long before the attack, but because of description and typing delays, Embassy personnel failed to deliver the message at the specific time.

Part of the Japanese plan for the attack also included breaking off negotiations with the United States thirty minutes before the attack began. The last part, breaking off negotiations (obviously it was the intention of the American Government to conspire with Great Britain and other countries to obstruct Japan's efforts toward the establishment of peace through the creation of a new order in East Asia; thus, the earnest hope of the Japanese Government to adjust Japanese-American relations and to preserve and promote the peace of the Pacific through cooperation with the American Government, had finally been lost), was delivered to Secretary Hull several hours after the Pearl Harbor



attack. The delay was due to an inability to locate General Marshall, trouble with the Army's long distance communication system, and a decision not to use Navy facilities to transmit it.

Japanese records, admitted into evidence during Congressional hearings on the attack after the war, established that the Japanese had not even written a declaration of war until after they heard of the successful attack on Pearl Harbor.

The attack and the surprise nature of it were both factors in changing U.S. public opinion from an isolationist position to support for direct participation in the war. Germany's prompt declaration of war, unforced by any treaty commitment to Japan, quickly brought the United States into the European Theater.

APPROACH AND ATTACK

On November 26, 1941, a Japanese force landed in the northwest of Hawaii, intending to launch its aircraft attack on Pearl Harbor.

The first shots fired and the first casualties in the attack on Pearl Harbor actually occurred when USS Ward attacked and sank a midget submarine at 06:37 Hawaiian time during a routine patrol outside the Harbor entrance. Five Japanese submarines class midget had been assigned to torpedo U.S. ships after the bombing started. None of these made it back safely and only four of the five had been found. Of the ten sailors aboard the five submarines, nine died, and the only survivor, Kazuo Sakamaki, was captured, becoming the first prisoner of war captured by the Americans in World War II.

On the morning of the attack, the Army's Opana Point radar station detected the Japanese Force, but the warning was confused, at the only partially active Intelligence Center to which the report was sent, with the expected arrival of U.S.-17 bombers, and discounted; other warnings sent were still being processed, or awaiting confirmation, when the shooting began. Some



commercial shipping may have reported unusual radio traffic; in the preceding days, several U.S. aircraft were shot down as the air attack approached land.

The attack on Pearl Harbor began at 07:48 December 07, Hawaiian time, which was 03:18 am December 08, Japan time. The Japanese planes attacked in two waves. The first wave was to be the primary attack, while the second wave was to finish whatever tasks remained.

FIRST WAVE

The Japanese first wave was detected by the United States Army radar at 136 nautical miles (252 Km), but it was misidentified as USAF (United States Air Force) bombers arriving from mainland U.S.A. (United States Army).

The first wave contained the bulk of the weapons to attack capital ships, mainly torpedoes. The aircrews were ordered to select the highest value targets (battleships and aircraft carriers) or if they were not present, any other high value ships (cruisers and destroyers). Dive-bombers were to attack ground targets. Fighters were ordered to strafe and destroy as many parked aircraft as possible to ensure they did not get into the air to counterattack the bombers especially in this first wave. When the fighters' fuel got low, they were to refuel at the aircraft carriers and return to combat.

This first attack wave of 183 planes was launched north of Oahu, commanded by Captain Mitsuo Fuchida. Six planes failed to launch due to technical difficulties. It included:

- 1st Group (targets: battleships and aircraft carriers)

50 bombers armed with 800 kg (1760 lb) armor-piercing bombs and 40 bombers armed with torpedoes, both organized in four sections.

- 2nd Group (targets: Ford Island and Wheeler Field)

54 dive-bombers armed with 550lb, general-purpose bombs.



- 3rd Group (targets: aircraft at Ford Island, Hickham Field, Wheeler Field, Barber's Point, Kaneohe)
- 45 fighters for air control and strafing.

As a first wave approached Oahu, a U.S. Army radar at Opana Point near the island's northern tip (a post not yet operational, having been in training mode for months) detected them and called in a warning. Although the operators reported a target echo larger than anything they had ever seen, an untrained officer at the new and only partially-activated Intercept Center, Lieutenant Kermit A. Tyler, presumed the scheduled arrival of six B-17 bombers was the source. The direction from which the aircraft were coming was close, while the operators had never seen a formation as large on radar; they neglected to tell Tyler of its size, while Tyler, for security reasons, could not tell them the B-17s were due (even though it was widely known). Several U.S. aircraft were shot down as the first wave approached land, and one at least radioed a somewhat incoherent warning. Other warnings from ships off the harbor entrance were still being processed or awaiting confirmation when the attacking planes began bombing and strafing. Nevertheless, it is not clear any warnings would have had much effect even if they had been interpreted correctly and much more promptly.

The air portion of the attack on Pearl Harbor began with the attack on Kaneohe. A total of 353 Japanese planes in two waves reached Oahu. Slow; vulnerable torpedo bombers led the first wave, exploiting the first moments of surprise to attack the most important ships present (the battleships), while dive bombers attacked U.S. air bases across Oahu, starting with Hickham Field, the largest, and Wheeler Field, the main U.S. Air Force fighter base.

Men aboard U.S. ships awoke to the sounds of alarms, bombs exploding, and gunfire, prompting bleary-eyed men into dressing as they ran to General Quarter's stations. (The famous message, "Air raid Pearl Harbor. This is not drill, ⁴" was sent from the headquarters of Patrol Wing Two, the first senior

⁴ http://Attack_on_Pearl_Harbor#First_wave_composition



Hawaiian command to respond.) The defenders were unprepared, ammunition lockers were locked, aircraft parked.

However, despite this and low alert status, many American military personnel responded effectively during the attack.

SECOND WAVE COMPOSITION

The second wave consisted of 171 planes commanded by Lieutenant-Commander Shigekazu Shimazaki. Four planes failed to launch because of technical difficulties. This wave and its target comprised:

- 1st Group - 54 B5Ns armed with 550 lb and 132 lb general purpose bombs.

27 B5Ns – aircraft and hangars on Kaneohe, Ford Island, and Barbers Point.

27 B5Ns – hangars and aircraft on Hickham Field

- 2nd Group (targets: aircraft carriers and cruisers)

81 D3As armed with 550 lb general-purpose bombs in four sections

- 3rd Group – (targets: aircraft at Ford Island, Hickham Field, Wheeler Field, Barber's Point, Kaneohe)

36 A6Ms for defense and strafing

Ninety minutes after the second wave began, the attack was over. Two thousand three hundred eighty-six Americans died (55 were civilians, most killed by unexploded American anti-aircraft shells landing in civilian areas), a further one thousand one hundred thirty-nine wounded. Eighteen ships were sunk or run aground, including five battleships. Already damaged by a torpedo and on fire forward, *Nevada* commanded by Captain Joe Taussing, attempted to exit the harbor.



Many Japanese bombers targeted her as she got under way, sustaining more hits from 250 lb. bombs, and she was deliberately beached to avoid blocking the harbor entrance.

The *California* was hit by two bombs and two torpedoes. The crew might have kept her afloat, but they were ordered to abandon the ship just as they were raising power for the pumps. Burning oil from *Arizona* and *West Virginia* commanded by Captain Mervyn Bennion drifted down on her, and probably made the situation look worse than it was. Twice torpedoes holed the disarmed target ship *Utah*. Seven torpedoes hit *West Virginia*, the seventh tearing away her rudder. Four torpedoes hit *Oklahoma*, the last two above her belt armor, which caused her to capsize. Two of the converted 40cm shells hit *Maryland*, but neither caused serious damage.

Although the Japanese concentrated on battleships, they did not ignore other targets. The light cruisers *Helena* and *Oglala* also were hit by torpedoes. Two destroyers in dry dock, *Cassin* and *Downes* were destroyed when bombs penetrated their fuel bunkers. The leaking fuel caught fire; flooding in an effort to fight fire made the burning oil rise and both burned out. *Cassin* slipped from her keel blocks and rolled against *Downes*. The light cruiser *Raleigh* was holed by a torpedo. The light cruiser *Honolulu* was damaged but remained in service. The repair vessel *Vestal*, moored alongside *Arizona*, was heavily damaged and beached. The seaplane tender *Curtiss* was also damaged. The destroyer *Shaw* was badly damaged when two bombs penetrated her forward magazine.

Of the 402 American aircraft in Hawaii, 188 were destroyed and 159 damaged 155 of them on the ground. Almost none were actually ready to take off to defend the base. Of the 33 PBV's in Hawaii, 24 were destroyed, and six others damaged beyond repair. Friendly fire brought down some planes and killed additional personnel in barracks.

Fifty-five Japanese aviators and nine submarines were killed in the action, and one was captured. Of Japan's 414 available planes, 29 were lost during the



battle (nine in the first attack wave, 20 in the second), with another 74 damaged by anti-aircraft fire from the ground.

POSSIBLE THIRD WAVE

Several Japanese senior officers, flight leaders, and junior officers urged Nagumo to attack with a third strike in order to destroy the oil storage spots, machine shops, and dry docks facilities as possible at Pearl Harbor. The United States had considered the vulnerability of the fuel oil storage tanks before the war and secretly started construction of the bomb-resistant Red Hill fuel tanks before the Japanese attack. Destruction of these facilities would have greatly increased the U.S. Navy's difficulties. However, Nagumo, decided to withdraw for several reasons:

- American anti-aircraft performance during the second strike had improved considerably, and two-thirds of Japanese losses happened during the second wave, due in part to the Americans being alerted. A third strike could have been expected to suffer still worse losses.
- The first two strikes had essentially used all the previously prepared aircraft available, so a third strike would have taken some time to prepare.
- The location of the American carriers remained unknown. In addition, the Admiral was concerned his force was now within range of American land-based bombers. Nagumo was uncertain whether the U.S. had enough surviving planes remaining on Hawaii to launch an attack against his carriers.
- The timing of a third strike would have been such that aircraft would probably have returned to their carrier after dark. Night operations from aircraft carriers were in their infancy in 1941, and neither the Japanese nor anyone else had developed reliable techniques and doctrine.



- He believed the second wave had essentially satisfied the main objective of his mission, of neutralizing the Pacific Fleet. Moreover, it was Japanese practice to prefer the conservation of strength to the total destruction of the enemy.

At 1:00 pm, the carriers that launched the planes from 274 miles off the coast of Oahu were heading back to Japan; behind them, they left chaos:

2.335 soldiers killed	155 planes damaged
68 civilians killed	217 planes destroyed
1,143 soldiers wounded	5 midget submariners killed
35 civilians wounded	9 submariners killed
4 battleships sunk	1 submariner captured
4 battleships damaged	55 airmen killed
3 destroyers sunk	

Although stunned by the attack to Pearl Harbor, the Pacific Fleet's aircraft carriers, submarines, and most important, its fuel-oil storage facilities emerged unscathed. These assets formed the foundation for the American response that led to the victory at the Battle of Midway the following June, and ultimately to the total destruction of the Japanese Empire four years later.



JAPANESE VIEWS OF THE ATTACK

Imperial Japanese military leaders showed a mix of feelings about the attack. Yamamoto was unhappy about the breaking off of negotiations. He said, "I fear all we have done is to awaken a sleeping giant and fill with a terrible resolve."⁵

Although the Japanese government had made some effort to prepare the general Japanese civilian population for war with the U.S. through U.S. propaganda, it appeared that most Japanese were surprised and apprehensive by the news that they were now at war with the U.S., a country that many Japanese admired. However, the Japanese people gradually accepted their government's reasons for the attack and supported the war effort until their nation's surrender in 1945.

The Japanese national leadership at that time appeared to believe that the war between the U.S. and Japan was inevitable. In 1942, Saburo Kurusu, former Japanese ambassador to the United States, gave an address in which he traced the historical inevitability of the war. He said that the war was a response to Washington's long-standing aggression toward Japan. According to Kurusu, the provocations began with the United States' racist policies on Japanese immigrants, and culminated in the belligerent scrap metal and oil boycott by the United States and allied countries, so the surprise attack was not treacherous.

IMMEDIATE AFTERMATH

Ninety minutes before the attack on Pearl Harbor began, Japanese troops invaded British Malaya. This was followed by an early-morning attack in Hong Kong and within hours Japanese planes attacked American facilities in the Philippines, Wake Island, and Thailand in a coordinated attempt to use surprise in order to inflict as much damage, as quickly as possible, to strategic targets.

On December 8, 1941, the U.S. Congress declared war on Japan. The United States was

⁵ <http://standbesideher.blogspot.com/>



outraged by the attack and by the late delivery of the note breaking off relations, action

which it considered treacherous. Roosevelt signed the declaration of war the same day, and called the previous day “a date which will live in infamy” and “no matter how long it takes for us to overcome this premeditated invasion, the American people in their righteous might will win through to absolute victory...⁶” in an address to a joint session of Congress.

The perception of the treacherous nature of the attack on Pearl Harbor also sparked fears of sabotage and espionage by Japanese-Americans and was a factor in the subsequent Japanese internment in the western United States, and Roosevelt signed United States Executive Order 9066 requiring all Japanese-Americans to show up for arrest and internment.

Nazi Germany and Fascist Italy declared war on the United States on December 11, four days after the attack. The relation between the Axis Powers and American leadership had gradually deteriorated and in earlier 1941, the Nazis learned of the U.S. military's contingency planning to get troops in Continental Europe by 1943; this was the “Rainbow Five” plan. Hitler knew that a war with the United States was unavoidable, and the Pearl Harbor attack, the publication of the Rainbow Five plan, and Roosevelt's post-Pearl Harbor address, which focused on European affairs as well as the situation with Japan, probably contributed. Similarly, the Nazis may have hoped the declaration of war, a showing of solidarity with Japan, would result in closer collaboration with the Japanese. Regardless, the decision was an enormous strategy and it enraged American public. It allowed the United States to enter the European theater of war in support of the United Kingdom and the Allied camp without much public debate.

President Roosevelt appointed an investigation commission, headed by U.S. Supreme Court Justice Owen Roberts, to report facts and findings with respect

⁶ http://www.solarnavigator.net/history/pearl_harbour.htm



to the attack on Pearl Harbor. Both the Fleet commander, Rear Admiral Husband E. Kimmel, and the

Army commander, Lieutenant General Walter Short, were relieved of their commands shortly thereafter. The Roberts Commission accused them of dereliction of duty for not making reasonable defensive preparations.

On May 25, 1999, the Senate voted to recommend both officers be exonerated on all charges of dereliction duty, citing allegations of the denial to Hawaii commanders of vital intelligence that was available in Washington.

In terms of its own objectives, the attack on Pearl Harbor was a tactical success, which far exceeded the expectations of its planners. Due to this, losses at Pearl Harbor and in the subsequent Japanese invasion of the Philippines, the U.S. Navy and Army Air Corps were unable to play any significant role in the Pacific War for the next six months. With the U.S. Pacific Fleet, essentially out of the picture for the moment, Japan was temporarily free of worries about the rival Pacific naval power. It went on to conquer Southeast Asia, the Southwest Pacific, and to extend its reach far into the Indian Ocean.

The Japanese hoped to win the victory before the United States could produce equal military equipment, but Japan failed to do this. The United States undertook unprecedented measures to prepare the economy for war. Controls were placed on wages and prices, and high income taxes were levied. The government rationed gasoline and some food products, and the production of cars, homes, and other items was completely stopped. In the fear that Germany might develop a nuclear weapon, the government spent \$2 thousand million on the top-secret Manhattan Project, which produced and tested an atomic bomb.

American, British, and Soviet war advisers decided to concentrate on defeating Germany first, but as it turned out, British Prime Minister Winston Churchill had the Allies direct their efforts toward the Mediterranean, where the Allied troops could defeat some important Axis forces. Then American forces advanced gradually toward Japan by island hopping; that is, by capturing some important



islands in the Pacific. American forces then prepared to invade Japan. Hoping to end the war, President Harry Truman ordered the use of the atomic bomb against Hiroshima (August 6, 1945) and Nagasaki (August 9, 1945). Japan decided to surrender on August 14. Almost 200,000 civilians were killed in the nuclear attacks, but it is believed that the death rate would have been higher if the Allies had invaded Japan.

The attack on Pearl Harbor doomed Japan to defeat, simply because it awakened “the sleeping U.S. behemoth,” regardless of whether the fuel depots or machine shops had been destroyed or even if the carriers had been caught in port and sunk. The U.S. industrial and military capacity, once mobilized, was able to pour overwhelming resources into both the Pacific and Atlantic theaters giving the end to World War II.

1.1.3 THE WAR STARTS

In 1933, Adolf Hitler was elected Chancellor of Germany after working his way up the ladder of government. By speaking against the Treaty of Versailles and making promises of a better life to the German people, Hitler gained the support of his fellow countrymen, and he easily won the election.

Almost immediately after Hitler took office, he began securing his position in power. Hitler took steps to eliminate all opposition, including political parties and anyone else who spoke out against him.

The death of President Hindenburg in 1934 clinched his high standing, and he in effect became dictator of Germany. Hitler held the titles of Head of State, Commander in Chief of German military forces, Chancellor, and Chief of the Nazi Party. There was no question of his supremacy. With his empire established, Hitler took steps to rearm Germany, leading the nation down the road to war. In violation of the Treaty of Versailles and a naval treaty signed with Great Britain, Hitler rebuilt the nation’s army and naval forces. By 1935 the ranks of the army had swelled to over 500,000 and production of arms and ammunition had resumed. Also, the Rhineland, a region in western Germany



next to France, was reoccupied by military units. This region had been demilitarized after World War I, and the Treaty of Versailles forbade occupation of the area. In spite of the violations of treaty after treaty, little was done by the world powers to control the renewed German militarism.

With the stage now set, Hitler set his plan for conquest into motion. Beginning in 1938, Hitler used threats and political manoeuvring to overthrow the government of nearby Austria. His next target was Czechoslovakia. In March of 1939, the nation was overtaken after Hitler threatened a bombing of Prague if his army met resistance on its invasion of the country. With the conquest of Europe well underway and his reach expanding rapidly, Hitler's power and influence were growing greater each day. He now planned to add Poland to his list of accomplishments and further extend the German empire.

The threat of Russia's backing the Poles to defend against an attack was neutralized when Germany and Russia signed a nonaggression pact saying that the two nations would not go to war. Great Britain sternly warned Germany that an attack on Poland would be considered an act of war. Hitler fearlessly ignored the warnings, and his operation swung into action. In the early morning hours of September 1, 1939, German forces mobilized and swarmed into Poland. The old-fashioned polished cavalry was devastated in the assault, as they stood no chance against the mighty Panzer tanks that rolled through the country with frightening speed. Two days after the attack, Britain and France joined in a declaration of war against Germany. Their belated reactions, however, could not save the army of Poland. In a battle that raged for nearly a month, the Polish army was eventually cornered in the capital city of Warsaw. After a brutal siege of the city, the valiant countrymen of Poland had no choice but to surrender to the overwhelming German force. The point of no return had been crossed, and Europe had fallen into the clutches of war for the second time in the century. Great Britain still remembered the horrors of World War I, and when Germany began to renew its sense of militarism, Britain was hesitant to start another war. Instead of using force, the British leaders, including Prime Minister Neville Chamberlain, sought a diplomatic solution to conflicts. When



Germany's ambitions were to capture the area known as Sunderland, in Czechoslovakia, Chamberlain held several meetings with Hitler and other nations, desperately trying to prevent an armed conflict with Germany. Chamberlain believed that by granting Hitler's demands, he could avoid a war with Germany. He was sorely mistaken. Even after all the negotiations and bargaining, Hitler's forces eventually overtook the entire nation of Czechoslovakia by force.

When it became clear that Hitler next planned an invasion of Poland, Great Britain had no choice but to issue a threat of war if Germany went through with the operation. The threat was simply disregarded, and the attack on Poland was carried out as planned. On September 3, 1939, two days after the Polish invasion began; Chamberlain gave a speech in which he finally stated that, "This country is at war with Germany..." The joint declaration of war on Germany with France became official the same day. In spite of efforts to avoid combat, the fears of the British people had come true on that day.

There were two big groups that acted the most during this war, The Allies and The Axis Powers. The United States, Britain (England), France, Australia, New Zealand, India, the Soviet Union, Canada, and Greece are some of the countries that were part of the Allied Powers.

The Axis powers consisted of Germany, Italy, and Japan as well as other nations strong-armed by Germany into the alliance. The three nations were not so much an alliance of ideology as they were an alliance of convenience. The reason that they were able to ally with each other was simply because their individual goals did not seriously conflict with each other.

At daybreak, on September 1, 1939, Poland woke up with really bad news. A huge force of tanks, guns and countless grey-dressed soldiers from nearby Germany had torn across the countryside and was making a total invasion of the Poles' homelands.



Germany's actions on that fateful morning ignited a conflict that would spread like wildfire, engulfing the entire globe in a great world war. Two years later Britain and France declared war on Germany.

In 1940, rationing was introduced in Britain early in the New Year, but little happened in Western Europe until the spring. The "winter war" between Russia and Finland concluded in March, and in the following month Germany invaded Denmark and Norway.

Denmark surrendered immediately, but the Norwegians fought on-with British and French assistance-surrendering in June only once events in France meant that they were fighting alone.

Years later, in the Far East, Japanese ambition for territory led the nation to invade Manchuria and other parts of nearby China, causing hostilities in the Pacific Rim. Great Britain, the United States, and many other nations of the world would all be drawn into battle in the years to come, and each nation had its own reason for lending a hand in the struggle.

Although Germany was the major player in World War II, the seeds of war had already been planted in the Far East years before conflict in Europe. On September 18, 1931, the powerful Japanese military forces began an invasion of the region known as Manchuria, an area belonging to mainland China. This action broke non-aggression treaties that had been signed earlier. It also was carried out by Japanese generals without the consent of the Japanese government. In spite of this, no one was ever punished for the actions. Soon after the assault on China, the Japanese government decided it had no choice but to support the occupation of Manchuria. By the next year the region had been completely cut off from China. Because of the Japanese offensive in China, the League of Nations held a vote in October to force Japan out of the captured territory. The vote was passed, 13 to 1, but Japan remained in control of Manchuria. A second vote, taken in February, 1933, a formal disapproval of the Japanese occupation, was passed 42 to 1. Instead of expelling Japan from



the area of Manchuria, it caused the nation to formally withdraw its membership in the League of Nations the next month.

Now unrestrained by the recommendations of the League of Nations, Japan continued its intrusion onto Chinese soil. By 1937 Japan had moved military forces into Beijing, Shanghai, and Nanjing, as well as other regions of China. By 1940, Japanese seizure of territory had spread to deep inside Southeast Asia and even parts of Australia. Also in 1940, the *Tripartite Pact* was signed, allying Japan, Germany, and Italy in a powerful force that stretched halfway around the planet. The association with Hitler and Germany unified the war in the Pacific and the war in Europe. Japan was now fully involved in what came to be known as World War II. As warfare raged in the Pacific Rim, a chain of events was unfolding that would produce catastrophic results. The Treaty of Versailles of 1919 held Germany fully accountable for the tragedy of World War I. The nation was stripped of large areas of land, its armaments, as well as its dignity. In addition, the reparations that were to be paid to the allied nations virtually destroyed the economy of Germany. The resentment of the treaty burned in the hearts and minds of Germans for years afterward.

The United States of America, like Great Britain, had hoped to avoid bringing the horrors of war to its people. For many years after the development of tensions in Europe and the Far East, the leaders of the U.S. had done nearly everything possible to remain neutral. For them, too, the memories of World War I were still fresh in mind. Although the U.S. did participate in such affairs as the temporary peace treaty that prevented the capture of Shanghai by the Japanese, the U.S. was determined to prevent the need for its troops to be placed in the way of danger). And so it would have remained, if it were not for one incident that would change the lives of many in the United States.

Although the United States proclaimed neutrality during this war, it gave to England 50 used destroyers in return for naval bases in the western Atlantic.

In December 1941, President Roosevelt received a letter from Winston Churchill, the leader of Great Britain, stating that by June of that year, England



would no longer be able to pay for the supplies and arms the United States had been providing in the battle against Germany. In 1934, the Johnson Debt-Default Act had forbidden the United States from trading with any warring nation except on cash terms. If England wanted to survive, it had to find a way around the *Johnson Act*.

Roosevelt devised a plan whereby the necessary supplies and equipment could be lent and leased to England. So Roosevelt persuaded the congress to pass a "*lend-lease*" bill.

By means of this program the United States lent \$13.5 thousand million in war supplies to England and another \$9 thousand million to the Soviet Union.

In the East, Japan invaded Manchuria in 1931, China in 1937, and French Indochina in July, 1941. Roosevelt counteracted this aggression by refusing to export scrap iron, steel, and oil to Japan, and by ending Japanese credit in the United States. With this supply of raw material needed for its further expansion cut off, Japan had to decide whether to withdraw from the territory which it already occupied, and thus appear to accept imposed territorial limitations, or to declare war on the United States.

The Japanese, tired of American trade embargoes, mounted a surprise attack on the US Navy base of Pearl Harbor, in Hawaii, on 7 December.

Japan entered the war in December 1941 and swiftly achieved a series of victories, resulting in the occupation of most of south-east Asia and large areas of the Pacific by the end of March 1942. Singapore fell in February, with the loss of an entire Australian division. After the bombing of Darwin that same month, all ships in the Mediterranean theatre, as well as the 6th and 7th Divisions, returned to defend Australia. In response to the heightened threat, the Australian government also expanded the army and air force and called for an overhaul of economic, domestic, and industrial policies to give the government special authority to mount a total war effort at home.



In March 1942, after the defeat of the Netherlands East Indies, Japan's southward advance began to lose strength, easing fears of an imminent invasion of Australia. Further relief came when the first AIF veterans of the Mediterranean campaigns began to come home, and when the United States assumed responsibility for the country's defense, providing reinforcements and equipment. The threat of invasion receded further as the Allies won a series of decisive battles: in the Coral Sea, at Midway, on Imita Ridge and the Kokoda Trail, and at Milne Bay and Buna.

Further Allied victories against the Japanese followed in 1943. Australian troops were mainly engaged in land battles in New Guinea, the defeat of the Japanese at Wau, and clearing Japanese soldiers from the Huon peninsula. This was Australia's largest and most complex offensive of the war and was not completed until April 1944. The Australian army also began a new series of campaigns in 1944 against isolated Japanese garrisons stretching from Borneo to Bougainville, involving more Australian troops than at any other time in the war. The first of these campaigns was fought on Bougainville and New Britain, and at Aitape, New Guinea. The final series of campaigns were fought in Borneo in 1945. How necessary these final campaigns were for Allied victory remains the subject of continuing debate. Australian troops were still fighting in Borneo when the war ended in August 1945.

While Australia's major effort from 1942 onwards was directed at defeating Japan, thousands of Australians continued to serve with the RAAF in Europe and the Middle East. Although more Australian airmen fought against the Japanese, losses among those flying against Germany were far higher. Australians were particularly prominent in Bomber Command's offensive against occupied Europe. Some 3,500 Australians were killed in this campaign, making it the costliest of the war.

Over 30,000 Australian servicemen were taken prisoner in the Second World War and 39,000 gave their lives. Two-thirds of those taken prisoner were captured by the Japanese during their advance through south-east Asia in the



first weeks of 1942. While those who became prisoners of the Germans had a strong chance of returning home at the end of the war, 36 percent of prisoners of the Japanese died in captivity.

Nurses had gone overseas with the AIF in 1940. However, during the early years of the war, women were generally unable to make a significant contribution to the war effort in any official capacity. Labor shortages forced the government to allow women to take a more active role in war work and, in February 1941, the RAAF received cabinet approval to establish the Women's Auxiliary Australian Air Force (WAAAF). At the same time, the navy also began employing female telegraphers, a breakthrough that eventually led to the establishment of the Women's Royal Australian Naval Service (WRANS) in 1942. The Australian Women's Army Service (AWAS) was established in October 1941, with the aim of releasing men from certain military duties in base units in Australia for assignment with fighting units overseas. Outside the armed services, the Women's Land Army (WLA) was established to encourage women to work in rural industries. Other women in urban areas took up employment in industries, such as munitions production.

The United States, Great Britain, Germany, and Japan were four of the largest countries that became heavily involved in the Second World War. But, many more nations played smaller roles in the event.

For instance, Italy was an ally of Germany and Japan, having signed the Tripartite Pact in 1940. But, the Italians were less than essential to Hitler's domination of Europe, and Benito Mussolini, dictator of Italy, suffered many humiliating defeats at the hands of the Allies

Another country that played a role in the war in Europe was the USSR. Once considered neutral in the war because of a nonaggression treaty with Germany, the Union of Soviet Socialist Republics was drawn into the fighting on June 22, 1941, when the German offensive code-named Operation Barbarossa began. The German forces planned to attack the Soviet Union at three points- Leningrad, Moscow, and Stalingrad-and were expected to be completed in six



weeks. The Soviets proved tenacious, however, and defended their capital and country with great effort, eventually halting the German advance.

France was a third major European state that was caught up in the chaotic beginnings of World War II. Allied with Great Britain, France joined in the battle of Europe after the invasion of Poland in 1939. Unfortunately, Hitler's forces eventually invaded France, ending their ability to fend off the attacks of the Axis powers.

Germany's invasion of Poland in late 1939 is considered the major event that set World War II in motion. But, like many other events in history, there is more to the story. Dozens of smaller occurrences pushed the world closer and closer to the brink of war over a period of many years. The results of each of these incidents culminated in total warfare that turned half of the world into a battleground. Several major countries were plunged into chaos and disorder, and the scars and horrible memories of the nightmare that was World War II are something that can never be erased or forgotten.

1.1.4 THE WAR ENDS

In 1944 Japan advanced in Burma, New Guinea and Guam and in that way it began its last offensive in China, capturing further territory in the south to add it to the acquisitions made in central and northern areas in the invasion of 1938. However, their control was limited to the major cities and lines of communication, and resistance - often led by the Communists, was widespread.

The Allied advance in Italy continued with landings at Anzio, in central Italy, in January. It was a static campaign. The Germans counter-attacked in February and the fighting saw the destruction of the medieval monastery at Monte Cassino after Allied bombing. Only at the end of May did the Germans retreat from Anzio. Rome was liberated in June, the day before the Allies' "Operation Overlord", now known as the D-Day landings.



On 6 June-as Operation Overlord got underway-some 6,500 vessels landed over 130,000 Allied forces on five Normandy beaches: code-named Utah, Omaha, Gold, Juno and Sword.

Some 12,000 aircraft ensured air superiority for the Allies, bombing German defenses, and providing cover. The pessimistic predictions that had been made of massive Allied casualties were not borne out. On Utah beach 23,000 troops were landed, with 197 casualties, and most of the 4,649 American casualties that day occurred at Omaha beach, where the landing was significantly more difficult to achieve, meeting with fierce German resistance.

Overall, however, the landings caught the Germans by surprise, and they were unable to counter-attack with the necessary speed and strength. Anything that was moving and German was liable to be attacked from the air.

Despite this, in the weeks following the landings, Allied progress was slowed considerably by the narrow lanes and thick hedgerows of the French countryside. Nevertheless, Cherbourg was liberated by the end of June. Paris followed two months later.

Hitler's troubles were compounded by a Russian counter-attack in June. This drove 300 miles west to Warsaw, and killed, wounded or captured 350,000 German soldiers. By the end of August, the Russians had taken Bucharest. Estonia was taken within months, and Budapest was under siege by the end of the year.

One glimmer of light for Germany came in the Ardennes, in France, where in December a German counteroffensive-the Battle of the Bulge-killed 19,000 Americans and delayed the Allies' march into Germany.

In 1945, the Soviet army continued its offensive from the east, while from the west the Allies established a bridge across the Rhine at Reimage, in March.

While the bombing campaigns of the Blitz were over, German V1 and V2 rockets continued to drop on London. The return bombing raids on Dresden,



which devastated the city in a huge firestorm, have often been considered misguided.

Meantime, the Western Allies raced the Russians to be the first into Berlin. The Russians won, reaching the capital on April 21. Hitler killed himself on the 30th; two days after Mussolini had been captured and hanged by Italian partisans. Germany surrendered unconditionally on May 7, and the following day was celebrated as VE (Victory in Europe) day. The war in Europe was over.

In the Pacific, however, it had continued to rage throughout this time. The British advanced further in Burma, and in February the Americans had invaded Iwo Jima. The Philippines and Okinawa followed and Japanese forces began to withdraw from China.

Plans were being prepared for an Allied invasion of Japan, but fears of fierce resistance and massive casualties prompted Harry Truman-the new American president following Roosevelt's death in April-to sanction the use of an atomic bomb against Japan.

Such bombs had been in development since 1942. In 1942, the first atomic pile, a sustained controllable nuclear chain reaction, came on line in Chicago. Scientist and inventor Enrico Fermi remarked, "This will be remembered as the darkest day in history," referring to both the atomic pile and that day's announcement of Nazi death camps operating in occupied Europe. Actually, most people have no knowledge of that day; they remember the ultimate achievement that began on that date-the atomic bomb.

The project was named The Manhattan Project because the first team started working in Manhattan. It was started before the war began at the urging (impulse) of Albert Einstein and other scientists. The warning was terrifyingly simple-the best theoretical physics was being done in Germany. A weapon of unimaginable power was possible. If the Nazis got it first, it wouldn't matter what the size was of the Allied Armed Forces, they could be annihilated in nuclear



fire.

But raids on the German uranium and heavy water production facilities showed they were far behind the American efforts. A comprehensive facility, secretly built in Los Alamos, was administrated by US Army General Leslie Groves and managed by civilian scientist Robert Oppenheimer. By 1944, they were developing an atomic weapon that would deliver a knockout blow to Nazi Germany.

But as the spring of 1945 ended, and the bomb moved from theory to reality, the scientists began to question whether it was necessary to develop a weapon. When the bomb was ready for testing in July 1945, a group of scientists, led by Leo Silzard, questioned if dropping the bomb was needed at all.

But the decision was already being made in favor of dropping the weapon on Japan. It was prepared for the B-29, a plane only operating in the Pacific Theatre of Operations. In Utah, The 504th composite group began practicing on dropping one bomb from a high altitude and turning around quickly. The pilots were sworn to secrecy without even knowing what the secret was.

On July 14, 1945, the bomb was detonated in a test in New Mexico. The scientists had no idea of how much explosive power the bomb would have; ideas ran from a dud to setting the atmosphere on fire. Edward Teller, after the war the father of American nuclear doctrine, had the highest guess: 1,000,000 tons of TNT (Tri Nitro Toluene/Trinitrotoluene). The bomb had the power of 20,000 tons of TNT. A cover story was that a munitions depot exploded. A blind woman claimed to see the atomic light from miles away; unfortunately, that was the last time anyone connected with nuclear weapons saw the light through blind eyes.

Within two weeks the 50th Composite group was ready to fly from Tinian to Japan and deliver its multimillion-dollar payload. From the lists of targets that had been preserved for the test, the primary target for Hiroshima was selected. The B-20, "Enola Gay," piloted by the squadron commander, Col. Paul Tibbets,



flew to Japan and dropped the bomb on August 6, 1945. The bomb was nicknamed “Little Boy” and used U-238 as its nuclear core.

At 8:15 AM, the line from Hiroshima to Tokyo went dead. Reports started coming in that Hiroshima had been obliterated by air attack. Reports of the dead ranged from 75.000 to 180.000 dead; due to radiation, people would be dying for decades from cancer and birth defects.

Controversy reigns about the use of the Hiroshima bomb. Some have argued that the naval blockade would starve Japan into submission; others have argued that without the bomb, the millions of casualties expected with the invasion of the home islands would have become a reality. The source for that estimate has never been found.

What is certain is that Japan was preparing the bloodiest reception ever for the Allies if they had invaded Honshu, the southern island in Japan. Truman would never have been able to hold office if he had a working weapon and chose not to use it. Also, the Alliance between the Western powers and the Soviets was growing tenuous after the fall of Germany; Truman, an unknown quantity to the Soviets, had to show he was unafraid to use a weapon of mass destruction, especially one that only the United States possessed at that time.

What is not certain is the extent to which the Japanese could have responded to the Allied unconditional surrender calls of August 6 and 7, 1945. The damage by the conventional bombing to the transportation and communications network prevented the Japanese government from fully understanding what had happened in Hiroshima.

So the government did nothing, and on August 9, 1945, the B-29 “Blocks Car” dropped the “Fat man” plutonium bomb on Nagasaki, the tertiary target. This time the bomb was dropped slightly off target, which minimized the effects; the blast stopped by hills near Nagasaki, 70.000 people were killed, but again the after-effects caused by the radiations continued to kill for decades.



In the 1950's several Japanese women were carried to the United States to have plastic surgery for their scars caused during the bombing. Ignored in this public relations tour was that thousands of Japanese carried radioactive scar that would be passed on to their children and would trouble them to this day.

In August 1945, the Japanese situation was desperate. The major cities were devastated by atomic or conventional attack, and the casualties numbered in the millions. Millions more were refugees, and the average food consumption was below 1200 calories a day. The fleet was lost, and the merchant shipping could not leave home waters or sail from the few possessions still held without braving submarine or mine attack. Oil stocks were gone, rubber and steel were in short supply, and the Soviets were moving against the only sizable forces the Japanese had left, the Kwantung Army in Manchuria. They were a starving and undersupplied force. Many divisions had transferred to the Pacific, where they died in the island battles.

Clearly the time to surrender had come. Incredibly, many in the military wanted to fight on, preferring death to capitulation. The cabinet, made up of elder statesmen, tried to send out peace feelers through neutral Sweden, Soviet Union, and Switzerland as early as June 1945. The only condition was the continued existence of the Imperial Throne. Unwilling or unclear of the Japanese offer, the Allies refused and issued the Potsdam Declaration on July 26th.

The Emperor was sympathetic to the peacemakers. The Army members of the cabinet were not willing to give up, and Prime Minister Suzuki had to move carefully. If there was a perceived weakness in the cabinet, even the Emperor might be assassinated. The idea that the Emperor would support surrender was inconceivable to many in both the Army and the Navy. Suzuki cautiously sought out others on the cabinet, finding all but two generals in support. On July 28, the government issued a carefully worded response to the Potsdam Declaration, which unfortunately used a word with a double meaning. English-language broadcasts used the word "ignore" and the Western press picked up that



sentiment. Truman announced he had rejected the peace offer and dropped the atomic bombs.

The Emperor ordered a surrender document be sent accepting the Potsdam Declaration. Through Swiss channels, it was sent to the United States, but it added that the Emperor must be left on the Imperial Throne. The Allies replied that the Emperor would be subject to the Allied occupation commander. While the cabinet debated, the Emperor secretly recorded a surrender broadcast. Imperial Guardsmen searched government offices in vain to seize the record. On August 14, the record was broadcast. Using formal Japanese, the public was unsure if the Emperor was surrendering or exhorting his subjects to continued resistance. The announcer assured the Japanese public that the war was over. An abortive attempt that night by Army and Navy right-wing officers to take the Emperor hostage and continue the war was stopped.

Truman accepted the surrender, and announced that the war was over on August 15th. Wild celebrations occurred in every Allied capital and most cities. US Army General Douglas C. MacArthur arrived at Atsugi Airfield on August 30th. His staff, lightly armed with pistols, wondered if they would meet a firing squad. As they arrived, thousands of Japanese civilians surrounded the plane and gave him a warm welcome. The occupation of Japan was about to begin.

On September 2, 1945, a huge force of Allied ships gathered in Tokyo Bay. Aboard the battleship USS Missouri, the Japanese signed the formal surrender document, watched by thousands of Allied representatives and the crew. MacArthur presided over the signing, accompanied by his former subordinate General Wainwright, who had been a POW (prisoner of war) since 1942. General Percival, commander at Singapore in 1942, was also present.

The Japanese Imperial Forces began surrendering in massed formations over the next six weeks. By October 7, 1945, when 1,000,000 Japanese Army soldiers were surrendered in Peking, many Japanese soldiers were being sent home. The Soviet POWs would wait years to return to Japan. The last one was announced as wanting to go home in 2006.



The biggest conflict in history had lasted almost six years. Some 100 million people had been militarized, and 50 million had been killed. Of those who had died, 15 million were soldiers, 20 million were Russian civilians, six million were Jews and over four million were Poles.



CHAPTER II

FASCISM

2.1 ADOLPH HITLER

2.2 EARLY LIFE AND EDUCATION

Adolf Hitler was born on April 20, 1889, in the small Austrian town of Braunau near the German border. Both Hitler's parents had come from poor peasant families. His father Alois Hitler, the illegitimate son of a housemaid, was an intelligent and ambitious man who later became a senior customs official.

Klara Hitler was Alois' third wife. Alois was twenty-three years older than Klara and already had two children from his previous marriages. Klara and Alois had five children but only Adolf and a younger sister, Paula, survived to become adults.

Alois, who was fifty-one when Adolf was born, was extremely keen for his son to do well in life. Alois did have another son by an earlier marriage but he had been a big disappointment to him and eventually ended up in prison for theft. Alois was a strict father and savagely beat his son if he did not do as he was told.

Hitler did extremely well at primary school and it appeared he had a bright academic future before him. He was also popular with other pupils and was much admired for his leadership qualities. He was also a deeply religious child and for a while considered the possibility of becoming a monk.

Competition was much tougher in the larger secondary school and his reaction to not being top of the class was to stop trying. His father was furious, as he had high hopes that Hitler would follow his example and join the Austrian civil service when he left school. However, Hitler was a stubborn child and attempts by his parents and teachers to change his attitude towards his studies were unsuccessful.



Hitler also lost his popularity with his fellow pupils. They were no longer willing to accept him as one of their leaders. As Hitler liked giving orders, he spent his time with younger pupils. He enjoyed games that involved fighting and he loved re-enacting battles from the Boer War. His favorite game was playing the role of a commando rescuing Boers from English concentration camps.

The only teacher Hitler appeared to like at secondary school was Leopold Potsch, his history master. Potsch, like many people living in Upper Austria, was a German Nationalist. Potsch told Hitler and his fellow pupils of the German victories over France in 1870 and 1871, and attacked the Austrians for not becoming involved in these triumphs. Otto von Bismarck, the first chancellor of the German Empire, was one of Hitler's early historical heroes.

Hitler dreamed of becoming an artist, so in 1907 he applied to the painting school at the Vienna Academy of Art. He did not pass the entrance exam. In 1908 he again tried to apply to the Vienna Academy of Art but this time was not even allowed to take the test. Two months later, his mother passed away from breast cancer.

Hitler spent the next four years in Vienna, living off what little he earned from selling postcards of his architectural drawings and the small inheritance from his mother. During this period of time, Hitler started to dabble in politics and became especially influenced by pan-Germanism.

2.3 POLITICAL FEATURES

After World War I, Hitler became convinced he was destined to save Germany. In 1919, working for an army unit, he was assigned to spy on a political party of roughly 40 idealists called the German Workers Party. Instead he joined it, swiftly rose to a position of dominance (he was chairman by 1921) and renamed it the Socialist German Workers Party. He gave the party the Swastika as a symbol and organized a personal army of 'storm troopers' (the SA or Brown



shirts) and a bodyguard of black -shirted men, the SS, to attack opponents. He also discovered, and used, his powerful ability for public speaking.

In November 1923 Hitler organized Bavarian nationalists under a figurehead of General Ludendorff into a coup. They declared their new government in a beer hall in Munich and then 3000 marched through the streets, but they were met by police, who opened fire, killing 16. Hitler was arrested and tried in 1924, but was sentenced to only five years in prison, a sentence often taken as a sign of tacit agreement with his views. Hitler served only nine months in prison, during which he wrote *Mein Kampf* (My Struggle), a book outlining his theories on race, Germany and Jews. It sold five million copies by 1939.

While in Landsberg he read a lot of books. Most of these dealt with German history and political philosophy. Later he was to describe his spell in prison as a "free education at the state's expense." One writer who influenced Hitler while in prison was Henry Ford, the American car-manufacturer. Hitler read Ford's autobiography, *My Life and Work*, and a book of his called *The International Jew*. In the latter Ford claimed that there was a Jewish conspiracy to take over the world. Hitler also approved of Ford's hostile views towards communism and trade unions.

Max Amman, his business manager, proposed that Hitler should spend his time in prison writing his autobiography. Hitler, who had never fully mastered writing, was at first not keen on the idea. However, he agreed when it was suggested that he should dictate his thoughts to a ghostwriter. The prison authorities surprisingly agreed that Hitler's chauffeur, Emil Maurice, could live in the prison to carry out this task.

Maurice, whose main talent was as a street fighter, was a poor writer and the job was eventually taken over by Rudolf Hess, a student at Munich University. Hess made a valiant attempt at turning Hitler's spoken ideas into prose. However, the book that Hitler wrote in prison was repetitive, confused, turgid and therefore, extremely difficult to read. In his writing, Hitler was unable to use



the passionate voice and dramatic bodily gestures which he had used so effectively in his speeches to convey his message.

The book was originally entitled *Four Years of Struggle against Lies, Stupidity, and Cowardice*. Hitler's publisher reduced it to *My Struggle (Mein Kampf)*. The book is a mixture of autobiography, political ideas and an explanation of the techniques of propaganda. The autobiographical details in *Mein Kampf* are often inaccurate, and the main purpose of this part of the book appears to be to provide a positive image of Hitler. For example, when Hitler was living a life of leisure in Vienna, he claims he was working hard as a laborer.

In *Mein Kampf* Hitler outlined his political philosophy. He argued that the German (he wrongly described them as the Aryan race) was superior to all others. "Every manifestation of human culture, every product of art, science and technical skill, which we see before our eyes today, is almost exclusively the product of Aryan creative power."

Hitler warned that the Aryan's superiority was being threatened by intermarriage. If this happened, world civilization would decline: "On this planet of ours, human culture and civilization are indissolubly bound up with the presence of the Aryan. If he should be exterminated or subjugated, then the dark shroud of a new barbarian era would enfold the earth."

Although other races would resist this process, the Aryan race had a duty to control the world. This would be difficult and force would have to be used, but it could be done. To support this view, he gave the example of how the British Empire had controlled a quarter of the world by being well-organized and having well-timed soldiers and sailors.

Hitler believed that Aryan superiority was being threatened particularly by the Jewish race who, he argued, were lazy and had contributed little to world civilization. (Hitler ignored the fact that some of his favorite composers and musicians were Jewish). He claimed that the "Jewish youth lies in wait for hours on end satanically glaring at and spying on the unconscious girl whom he plans



to seduce, adulterating her blood with the ultimate idea of bastardizing the white race which they hate and thus lowering its cultural and political level so that the Jew might dominate."

According to Hitler, Jews were responsible for everything he did not like, including modern art, pornography and prostitution. Hitler also alleged that the Jews had been responsible for losing the First World War. Hitler also claimed that Jews, who were only about 1% of the population, were slowly taking over the country. They were doing this by controlling the largest political party in Germany, the German Social Democrat Party, many of the leading companies and several of the country's newspapers. The fact that Jews had achieved prominent positions in a democratic society was, according to Hitler, an argument against democracy: "a hundred blockheads do not equal one man in wisdom."

Hitler believed that the Jews were involved with Communists in a joint conspiracy to take over the world. Like Henry Ford, Hitler claimed that 75% of all Communists were Jews. Hitler argued that the combination of Jews and Marxists had already been successful in Russia and now threatened the rest of Europe. He argued that the communist revolution was an act of revenge that attempted to disguise the inferiority of the Jews.

After the Beer-Hall Putsch, Hitler resolved to seek power through subverting the Weimar government system, and he carefully rebuilt the NSDAP, or Nazi party, allying with future key figures like Goering and propaganda mastermind Goebbels. Over time, he expanded the party's support, partly by exploiting fears of socialists and partly by appealing to everyone who felt their economic livelihood threatened by the depression of the 1930s, until he had the ears of big business, the press and the middle classes. Nazi votes jumped to 107 seats in the Reichstag in 1930.



HITTLER AS PRESIDENT

In 1932 Hitler acquired German citizenship and ran for president, coming second to von Hindenburg. Later that year the Nazi party acquired 230 seats in the Reichstag, making them the largest party in Germany. Helped by support from conservative politicians believing they could control Hitler, he was appointed Chancellor of Germany on January 30, 1933. Hitler moved with great speed to isolate and expel opponents from power, shutting trade unions, removing communists, conservatives and Jews. Later that year Hitler perfectly exploited an act of arson on the Reichstag (which some believe the Nazis helped cause) to begin the creation of a totalitarian state, dominating the March 5th elections thanks to support from nationalist groups. Hitler soon took over the role of president when Hindenburg died, and merged the role with that of Chancellor, to become Führer ('Leader') of Germany.

Hitler continued to move with speed in radically changing Germany, consolidating power, locking up "enemies" in camps, bending culture to his will, rebuilding the army and breaking the constraints of the Treaty of Versailles. He tried to change the social fabric of Germany by encouraging women to breed more and bringing in laws to secure racial purity; Jews were particularly targeted. Employment fell to zero in Germany. Hitler also made himself head of the army.

HITTLER AND FASCISM

FASCISM

Fascism was an authoritarian political movement that developed in Italy and several other European countries after 1919 as a reaction against the profound political and social changes brought about by World War I, and the spread of socialism and Communism. Its name was derived from the fasces, an ancient Roman symbol of authority consisting of a bundle of rods and an ax. Italian fascism was founded in Milan on March 23, 1919, by Benito Mussolini, a former revolutionary socialist leader. His followers, mostly war veterans, were organized along paramilitary lines and wore black shirts as uniforms. The early



Fascist program was a mixture of left-and right-wing ideas that emphasized intense Nationalism, productivism, anti-socialism, elitism, and the need for a strong leader. Mussolini's oratorical skills, the post-war economic crisis, a widespread lack of confidence in the traditional political system, and a growing fear of socialism, all helped the Fascist party to grow to 300,000 registered members by 1921. In that year it elected 35 members to parliament.

Once in power, Adolf Hitler turned Germany into a fascist state. Fascist was originally used to describe the government of Benito Mussolini in Italy. Mussolini's fascist one-party state emphasized patriotism, national unity, hatred of communism, admiration of military values and unquestioning obedience. Hitler was deeply influenced by Mussolini's Italy and his Germany shared many of the same characteristics.

The German economic system remained capitalistic but the state played a more prominent role in managing the economy. Industrialists were sometimes told what to produce and what price they should charge for the goods that they made. The government also had the power to order workers to move to where they were required.

By taking these powers, Hitler's government was able to control factors such as inflation and unemployment that had caused considerable distress in previous years. As the government generally allowed companies to maintain their profit margins, industrialists tended to accept the loss of some of their freedoms.

Under fascism, most potential sources of opposition were removed. This included political parties and the trade union movement. However, Adolf Hitler never felt strong enough to take complete control of the German Army, and before making important decisions, he always had to take into consideration how the armed forces would react.

By the time Hitler gained power, he had ceased to be a practicing Christian. He did not have the confidence to abolish Christianity in Germany. In 1934 Hitler signed an agreement with Pope Pius XI in which he promised not to interfere in



religion if the Catholic Church agreed not to become involved in politics in Germany.

The individual had no freedom to protest in Hitler's Germany. All political organizations were either banned or under the control of the Nazis. Except for the occasional referendum, all elections, local and national, were abolished.

All information that people in Germany received was selected and organized to support fascist beliefs. As Minister of Propaganda, Joseph Goebbels kept a close check on the information provided by newspapers, magazines, books, radio broadcasts, plays and films.

Adolf Hitler, who had been deeply influenced by his own history teacher, was fully aware that schools posed a potential threat to the dominant fascist ideology. Teachers who were critical of Hitler's Germany were sacked and the rest were sent away to be trained to become good fascists. Members of the Nazi youth organizations such as the Hitler Youth, were also asked to report teachers who questioned fascism.

As a further precaution against young people's coming into contact with information which the government disapproved of, textbooks were withdrawn and rewritten by Nazis.

2.4 THE ARYAN RACE

The Aryan race, often associated with the "blond-hair, blue- or green-eyes" description, was in several Germans' minds the perfect future of the world. They believed that if they could replace a majority of the population of Western Europe with Aryans, they would be much happier.

ORIGIN OF THE CONCEPT

There were some theories about the origin of the "Aryan race." First, it was believed that the Aryan race originated in southwestern Russia, what was a part of Persia. Second, some German scholars argued that the Aryans originated in



ancient Germany or Scandinavia and this theory very much influenced German intellectuals. Another theory took place in India, under the British Empire; the British rulers used the idea of a distinct Aryan race in order to ally British power with the Indian caste system. They said that the Aryans were “white” people.

However, there is another theory, which is upheld by many scholars: that the Aryans were a tribe of Indo-European-speaking, horse-riding nomads living in the arid steppes of Eurasia. Sometime around 1700 BC, the Aryans invaded the ancient urban civilizations of the Indus Valley, and destroyed that culture. The Indus Valley civilizations were far more civilized than any horse-back nomad, having had a written language, farming abilities, and led a truly urban existence. Some 1,200 years after the supposed invasion, the descendants of the Aryans wrote the classic Indian literature called the Vedic manuscripts.

The Aryans, a master race of Indo-Europeans, were supposed to be Nordic in appearance and directly ancestral to the Germans. They were directly opposite to native south Asian peoples, called Dravidians, who were supposed to have been darker-skinned.

The word Arya first appeared in the Sanskrit Vedas (any of the oldest Hindu sacred texts, composed in Sanskrit) around 2000 BCE, meaning “noble person.” The idea of the “Aryan Race” however, as a strictly ethnic interpretation of the word that extended to Europeans, arose when linguists identified the Sanskrit and Avestan languages as the oldest relatives of all the major European languages, including Latin, Greek, the Germanic, Celtic, and Slavic languages. They argued that all of these languages originated from a common-root spoken by an ancient people who must have been the ancestors of all the European, Iranian, and North Indian peoples.

These hypothetical ancestors were at first given the name Aryans by linguists, from this point the term “Aryan” came to mean something similar to “white European” although excluding the Jewish and Arab peoples.

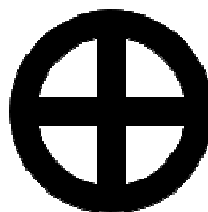


CULTURE OF THE ARYANS

We can mention some elements of the Aryan culture like the worship of the gods Indra, Varuna, Agni, and Mithra. Another element was the ritualistic use of a possibly hallucinogenic drink called *Soma*, which was extracted from an unknown plant. However, some groups separated and migrated to other towns and because of that, their original religious practices changed.

The Aryan race also used the *sun wheel* as its symbol. Since the military defeat of Nazi Germany by the Allies in 1945, some neo-Nazis had expanded their concept of the Aryan race, moving from the Nazi concept that the purest Aryans were the Nordics of Northern Europe, to the idea that the true Aryans were everyone descended from the Western or European branch of the Indo-European peoples.

The Sun Wheel is considered a universal symbol founded on ancient Nordic countries. Today it is used as a logo by some new fascist organizations. It represents power and supremacy.



HITLER AND THE ARYAN RACE

The word Aryan originally was meant simply as a neutral ethnic classification. The idea of the origins of the Aryans was mainly influenced in Germany where racism spread among German intellectuals especially after First World War. These ideas involved into the Nazi use of the term “Aryan race” to refer to what they saw being a master race of people of European descent.

The origins of the Nazi version of the theory of the master race were found in the 19th century. Many scholars argued that cultures degenerated when distinct



racas mixed. And the racial ideal of these theorists was the tall, blond and blue- or green-eyed individual. The Nazi theorist Alfred Rosenberg claimed “the Aryan was a dynamic warrior who originated in northern climates, from which he migrated to the south, reaching India.⁷” He was supposed to be the ancestor of the ancient Germanic tribes, who shared his warrior values.

However, some historians considered the Aryan race was based on the beliefs of various occultist organizations formed in the early half of the century that practiced black magic and believed in topics such as reincarnation and the Aryan race. One of these organizations was the *Thule Society*, which later was called the National Socialist German Workers Party or the Nazi Party to which Adolph Hitler was asked to join; the leaders of the group saw Hitler as a very valuable leader because of his achievements as German dictatorial leader throughout all of World War II. He was considered to be one of the most ruthless and influential dictators in history. He had popular support; he asserted the superiority of the Aryan race, from which the German race was spawned. He believed the Germans represented the highest breed of all the Aryans, a mythological race of blonde-haired, blue-eyed supermen and women. In addition, Hitler thought the Aryan race was a divine creation, the master race of German people.

Germany and a large portion of the rest of the world suffered a large economic depression. The German people were affected and suffered heavy losses from the First World War. They were naturally angry with their misfortune and they were susceptible to Hitler's persuasion. Hitler blamed the nation's suffering on the Jewish people, as well as other ethnic groups, and the nation went right along with it.

Hitler and Heinrich Himmler (another member of the Thule Society, who believed that he was a reincarnation of the 10th century German King Heinrich) established their personal SS army, made up of only the purest of “Aryans.”

⁷ http://www.servinghistory.com/topics/Master_race::sub::Aryanism



They spread anti-Semitic (discrimination and persecution against Jews) propaganda throughout the country, saying that the *fit* should join the SS and bear many children. Posters and pamphlets flooded Germany and other countries, as their power spread during World War II.

In order to achieve the perfect “Aryan” race that was desired, more *pure* and *fit* citizens needed to be bred, and spa-like camps were created around Europe; the SS could efficiently help millions of ideal women bring children into the world. This system was called Germany's *Lebensborn* organization.

Some believed that Lebensborn, which meant “fountain or source of life,” was maternity homes where unmarried women could receive food and help while undergoing pregnancy. However, others think that it was a kind of brothel where SS men could find pleasure. Either way, it was a way to breed Hitler's super-race.

In most cases the admittance into a Lebensborn was voluntary. Women were eager to produce children for Hitler and the nation. Women were treated like royalty while staying at the Lebensborn. They received plenty of attention and food and their health was watched carefully by several doctors and nurses.

However, in many cases the children of women that entered the Lebensborn were not sponsored by the SS. The reason for this was that several of these women were impregnated by unknown men, whose racial background was not known; therefore, the child was not guaranteed to be “Aryan.”

But not everyone who took part in developing the master-race had a good time. Huge numbers of young women and children were actually kidnapped from their families if they were thought to have been of Nordic descent.

GERMAN STERILIZATION

In order to maintain the purity of the master race, the Nazi-powered Germany established concentration camps to hold millions of unfit to be murdered. In the late 1920s and 30s, before Hitler's influence, the Germans gained their interest in eugenics, and with the beginning of the Second World War, Hitler's ideas



about racial ideology became more sinister. In October, 1941 the T-4 Euthanasia program and some medical experiments were carried out; prisoners, mentally retarded patients, and those born with genetic deficiencies had to be exposed to extreme vacuum pressures until their lungs exploded, or extreme pain made them tear out their hair, bang their heads against the walls, or maim their faces with their fingernails. These experiments had the objective to eliminate all people who did not belong to the master race, especially the Jews, Gypsies, and Homosexuals. These cruel activities showed the direct connection between racial theories and fascist atrocities. All these kinds of cruel programs were related to what became known as the Holocaust or *final solution*.

HITLER AND HIS RACIAL BELIEFS

In his book Mein Kampf (My Struggle), he viewed racial conflict as the determining factor in all of human history. For him, race was not simply a political issue to be used to curry the favor of the masses, but the “granite foundation” of his ideology.

Hitler’s racial ideology stemmed from what he called “the basic principles of the blood.” This meant that the blood of every person and every race contained the soul of a person and likewise the soul of his race, *the Volk*, which referred to people of German nation. It was seen as a mystical whole, greater than the sum of the parts, which comprised the Aryan peoples of Germany and their religion, folklore, language, arts, land and a sort of congregate “soul” reflecting the embodiment of the totality of the people. Hitler believed that the Aryan race to which all “true” Germans belonged, was the race whose blood (soul) was of the highest degree.

Since the blood (soul) of the Aryans contained specific spiritual energies, the cultural energies or racial primal elements, as Hitler often called them; the Aryans supplied the culture that created the beauty and dignity of higher



humanity. God himself, in fact, had created the Aryans as the most perfect men, both physically and spiritually, thought Hitler.

When Germany lost World War I, many economic problems appeared, and because of that the Aryan race began to decline. This descent occurred by the original sin of blood by an inferior race. The Aryan gave up the purity of his blood and therefore lost his sojourn in his perfect paradise. The Aryan became submerged in the racial mixture and gradually, more and more lost his cultural capacity, until at last, not only mentally but also physically, he began to resemble the subjected aborigines more than his own ancestors. Thus, cultures and empires collapsed to make place for new formations. Blood mixture and the resultant drop in the racial level were the reason for the dying out of old cultures; and all who were not of good race in this world were chaff.

The “serpent”, as Hitler called it that brought about the contamination of pure Aryan blood was the Jew, and the mightiest counterpart to the Aryan was represented by him. To Hitler, the Jews were not members of a particular religious creed, but a specific race. The Jew had always been a person with definite racial characteristics and never a religion. In addition, the Jew could not possess a religious institution, if for no other reason than that he lacked idealism in any form; hence, belief in a hereafter was completely strange for him, and a religion in the Aryan sense could not accept people who lacked the conviction of survival after death in some form.

From Hitler’s perspective, the Jewish race was not created by God as one of the original root races of mankind; he thought of the Jews as inhuman, the embodiment of all that was evil. Therefore, the living shape of a Jew was considered the symbol of the devil. The goal of the Jews was the domination of the world, a task that could be achieved by the poisoning of Aryan blood. Hitler affirmed that the Jews used a variety of methods to accomplish this task. The most evident was *miscegenation* (cohabitation, sexual relations or marriage between persons of different races), accomplished by Jewish rape of Aryan girls and Jewish importation of blacks into Germany in order to destroy Aryan purity



and carry out this kind of disarming of the spiritual leading class of his racial adversaries.

The Jewish race was also attempting to poison the Aryan blood (soul) by using social methods, such as cultural and political means. The Jew was the fundamental cause of the decadence that Hitler saw in modern art and literature. To Hitler, Jewish modern art was a deliberate attempt to infect the unconsciousness or inner self of the Aryan people. Culturally he contaminated art, literature, the theater, made a mockery of natural feeling, overthrew all concepts of beauty and sublimity, of the noble and the good.

In addition, in the area of politics, Hitler perceived the greatest Jewish threat to the Aryan race, the most powerful political tool of the Jewish race, was Marxism. Marxism was a rival Weltanschauung that created a “view of life” directly hostile to everything that Hitler believed. To Hitler, Marxism maintained that the state had in itself the “creative, culture-forming force,” meaning that the state created a nation’s culture out of economic necessities. In Hitler’s view, the state could not create a nation’s culture. Since the nation was the outward manifestation of a race’s inner nature of soul, the state then could only be the instrument by which a race could express its cultural energies. The state’s primary function was to preserve and promote those Aryan culture-creating spiritual elements that existed only in the blood of the Aryan race.

The state was a means to an end. This end lay in the preservation and advancement of a community of physically homogeneous creatures. This preservation itself included first, existence as a race and thereby permitted the free development of all the forces dormant in this race. Thus, the highest purpose of a folk’s state was to try to preserve those original racial elements which gave culture and created the beauty and dignity of a higher mankind. The Aryans could conceive of the state only as the living organism of a nation, which not only assured the preservation of this nationality, but also the development of its spiritual and ideal abilities, which led it to the highest freedom.



Hitler also deplored Marxism for its belief in racial equality. Obviously, racial inequality and Aryan domination did not permit such misunderstanding of the role of race in history. Likewise, Hitler denounced Marxism's level egalitarianism, which he felt destroyed the natural principle of inequality and the consequent domination of some individuals over others.

Hitler saw the Marxist threat to Aryan culture-creating ability not as coincidental but as a deliberate plan to destroy culture, bringing civilization into chaos, and enabling the Jews to achieve their goal of world domination. To Hitler, the Jew Karl Marx knew precisely which policies would lead to world chaos.

With this racial ideology, Hitler often spoke of an historic or higher mission of the Aryan race and its elite core, the German people. The Aryans, according to Hitler, were once rulers of the earth, the highest race of mankind, endowed with the highest degree of spiritual qualities and the only ones capable of producing a higher civilization.

Aryans were, in essence, god-men on earth, but through blood poisoning, lost their ruling position. However, as its higher mission, the German people were destined to regain this position for the Aryan race, so Germany had to restructure its political and social foundations and create a state whose function was to promote the Aryan culture, creating spiritual elements that existed in the blood of the German race. If this were done, racially and spiritually pure human beings could be produced, ensuring Aryan world domination.

However, Hitler thought there was a major obstacle, which had to be dealt with: the Jew. The Jew was the one who poisoned the blood (soul) of the Aryan race, thus inhibiting its spiritual growth and endangering its divine destiny. Since Hitler saw all Jewish action as racial, it became his divine mission to create an Aryan spiritual movement to combat the Jewish race. Hitler believed that his Nazi Party, founded as a spiritual movement, would successfully rise to German political dominance since it was based, in his mind, on eternally true ideals rooted in the very soul of the Aryan race. Once in power, the Nazi movement could then create a state that would promote the historic destiny of the Aryan



race. And the first task of this Aryan state was to eliminate the Jewish threat. This is why Hitler's political career both began and ended with a warning against the Jewish danger. Later Hitler found the solution to this, which was the "genocide," a systematic and planned extermination of the Jewish race in Europe. Once the Jews were purged from Europe, Germany would be able to produce pure Aryans who would be physically and spiritually pure Aryans, perfect human beings.

In addition, we can mention some of the sources that influenced the development of Hitler's ideas on racial ideology. The composer Richard Wagner, the philosophers Friedrich Nietzsche and Arthur Schopenhauer, the politicians George von Schonerer and Karl Lueger, the racial philosophers Joseph Arthur Gobineau and Houston Stewart Chamberlain, Social Darwinism, and racism in general were some of his main sources.

Although the importance of the occultism, especially in the emergence of Nazi ideology and esoteric racial philosophy, were considered important sources for Hitler's racial ideology, Hitler believed in many ideas that these groups were perpetrating, and an ample evidence of this was provided in his references to reincarnation, the lost continent of Atlantis, as well as in his conviction about the early myths and legends of cosmic disasters and struggles between giants and gods.

A large variety of occult or esoteric groups and philosophies existed in German-speaking lands from the 1910s into the 1920s. One of the most influential schools of thought came out of the work established by the Russian Helena Blavatsky. She had immersed herself deeply in esoteric spiritual beliefs. She formed a universal esoteric philosophy, which she called *Theosophy* (Wisdom of the Gods). She viewed it as the revival of an ancient, occult knowledge derived from an earlier, advanced civilization, which had known a unity between science and religion. In 1875, she founded the theosophical Society in New York City. Her purpose was to collect and diffuse the knowledge of the laws governing the universe.



In her esoteric work, "The Secret Doctrine," originally published in 1888, Blavatsky emphasized the concept of races as paramount in the development of human history. According to Blavatsky, there were seven root races of mankind, with each root race containing seven sub-races, and the Aryan race was the fifth one. According to Blavatsky, the Aryan race was born and developed in the far North, though after the sinking of the Continent of Atlantis, its tribes immigrated further south into Asia. The Aryans following a migratory pattern that went south and west from Asia created the great Hindu, Persian, Greco-Roman, and later European cultures. Hitler, like his party ideologist, Alfred Rosenberg, also claimed Aryan origins for all of these cultures.

The Aryan race for Blavatsky was constituted in a differently physical and spiritual sense so the man was considered purely spirit, which entered and animated physical matter (the body). This kind of man had psychic powers, "spiritual sight," the ability to perceive subtle realities of the spiritual world, and thus could see into the future and read minds.

To have "magic insight" was Hitler's idea of the goal of human progress. He himself felt that he had those psychic powers. He attributed to it his success and his future eminence. New ideas about forms of perception and supernatural powers began to fascinate Hitler and he sometimes was wrapped up in them. He saw his own career as a confirmation of hidden powers. He also saw himself as chosen for superhuman tasks, as the prophet of the rebirth of man in a new world. Hitler believed that mankind was evolved into two distinct types. The two types rapidly diverged from one another. One of them had to sink to a sub-human race and the other had to rise far above the man of that time. The new godlike Aryan had to rule over the inferior races, the "mass-animal" as Hitler called them. To him, it was the divine mission of the Nazi movement. Hitler believed that the Nazi movement had to return the Aryan race to his original state: racial purity and inner spirituality. If the Nazi movement was to lead the Aryan race back to its purest form, first, it had to eliminate those factors that caused the decline of it. These were the egoism, materialism, and impurity of blood. The existence of these elements was not in Hitler's mind, but the result of



the conspiratorial actions of the Jews. For them, religion was grounded on mere calculation. They had a religion of hate and malice toward everyone and everything outside itself. Jewish materialism and selfishness contrasted strongly with Aryan spiritually and selflessness. The Aryans were the most spiritual people on earth. For them, religion was an everlasting lodestar. Hitler thought there were two worlds facing one another, the men of God, and the men of Satan. For him, the Jew was an anti-man, the creature of another god who had come from another root of the human race. Hitler considered the Aryan and the Jew as man and beast who did not belong to the same nature.

As Theosophy influenced Hitler's racial ideology, we can mention another important source that also contributed to Hitler's thoughts; it was *Ariosophy*, the combination of occultism, nationalism, and racism. The leading figures of Ariosophy were two Austrians, Guido von List and Lanz von Liebenfels. They were two free authors who used mystical and occult themes in their writings. In 1903 in Vienna was formed the Guido von List Society by his supporters. The main purpose of the society was to perpetuate the books and ideas of List.

List wrote a book, "The Religion of the Ario-Germans," which established that the universe and its mysteries could be grasped only by people closely in tune with nature. Only the Ario-Germans were capable of achieving that because they were considered a pure race that was removed from modern rationalism and materialistic society. The Ario-Germans also were considered a master race which could hold leadership positions in the state, schools, professions, industry, banks, newspapers, theater, and the arts. The Jews on the other hand, were viewed as a prime example of lower race since they were heavily involved in rationalism and materialism. Racial laws had to maintain the purity of the Ario-Germanic race by prohibiting racial intermarriage.

List was also interested in occult signs and symbols, and in his book "The Secret of the Runes," he said that runes were the sacred symbols of the ancient Aryan which, interpreted properly, could provide a real understanding of the spiritual forces. He used the *swastika*, which he described as a fundamental occult symbol of salvation, to represent the victory of the Aryans over the lower



racism. All this List's conception about the Aryans and the Jews had a good reception by Hitler, helping him to fortify his desire of creating a new master race.

Once in Vienna, Hitler emphasized in *Mein Kampf* that he established a world picture and a philosophy, which became the granite foundation of all his actions. That granite foundation was centered in his racial ideology based on the superiority of the Ario-Germans. "The Aryan hero is on this planet the most complete incarnation of God and of the Spirit,"⁸ Hitler thought.

Jews as well as other inferior races were characterized as "animal-men" who had to be eliminated by genetic selection, sterilization, deportations, forced labor, and even direct liquidation. To Hitler, to achieve this goal, the elimination of the animal-men made possible the coming of the higher new men. Hitler felt identified with occultism; he associated with some members of the Thule Society, an occult society that combined occult racial philosophy with a belief in militant action. The Thule Society preached Aryan supremacy and acted to achieve it. It provided the final link between occult racial theories and the racial ideology of Hitler and the emerging Nazi party.

The Thule Society was basically a continuation of the German Order, whose first lodge was established in Berlin in 1912. The aims of the German Order were to achieve German racial purity, attack the Jews, and establish Germans as the leaders of Europe.

Hitler and other Nazis came into direct contact with esoteric philosophy and occultism.

The lack of originality in Hitler's thought was apparent. However, Hitler's true originality was his ability to translate ideas into reality. His racial ideology, derived in part from perversion of esoteric thought did, after all, and became racial genocide.

⁸ http://www.freemasonrywatch.org/hitler_occult.html



The concept of the “Aryan race” supported by Hitler was mainly based on the beliefs of various occultist groups during the turn of the nineteenth century. They thought it was started merely by heavily mythical groups of individuals, rather than by scientific studies and discoveries; but it was true that this Nazi ideology of creating a master race caused the holocaust of World War II, which was one of the most tragic and inhumane events of history.

Millions of people were exterminated because of their "race" and supposed flawed genetic makeup. Although the human gene had not yet been discovered, nor was there any proof that those exterminated were flawed in any way, the Nazi SS used eugenics, hate, and the poverty of their nation to justify what we now view as a grave adversity.



CHAPTER III

THE IMPACT OF THE SECOND WORLD WAR

3.1 THE CONFERENCE IN RIO

The Rio Protocol, the Treaty of Peace, Friendship, and Boundaries between Ecuador and Peru, was signed in Rio de Janeiro, Brazil, on January 29, 1942, between the Foreign Ministers of Ecuador and Peru, and with the participation of the United States, Brazil, Chile, and Argentina as guarantors of the treaty.

This treaty brought officially to an end a state of war that had existed between Ecuador and Peru since July 5, 1941. By the end of July, a ceasefire came into effect, leaving part of the Ecuadorian provinces of El Oro, Loja, and Zamora, under Peruvian occupation.

HISTORY

In May 1941, as tensions at the Ecuadorian-Peruvian border mounted and war was imminent, the governments of the United States, Brazil, and Argentina offered their services in aiding in the mediation of the dispute. Their efforts failed to prevent the outbreak of hostilities on July 23, 1941, but the diplomatic intervention led to a definitive ceasefire being put into place on July 31. Despite this, limited skirmishes continued through the months of August and September in the Ecuadorian provinces of El Oro and Loja, as well as in the Amazonian lands. Ecuador accused Peru of continuing its advances into the highland province of Azuay.

On October 2, with military observers from the three mediating countries serving as witnesses, Ecuador and Peru signed the Talara Accord, which created a demilitarized zone inside the provinces of El Oro and Loja, pending the signing of a definitive peace treaty. Diplomatic efforts continued, with the mediating countries being joined by Chile.

With its recent entry into World War II, the United States was eager to present a united American continent. At the third Pan-American Summit, held in Rio de



Janeiro, Brazil and the United States encouraged a settlement between Ecuador and Peru.

On January 29, 1942, on the final day of the third Pan-American Summit held in Rio de Janeiro, the foreign ministers of Ecuador and Peru, Julio Tobar Donoso and Alfredo Solf y Muro, signed a "Protocol of Peace, Friendship, and Boundaries" known as the Rio de Janeiro Protocol. The observers from the United States, Brazil, Argentina, and Chile co-signed the document, becoming "Guarantors of the Protocol." The Rio Protocol was subsequently ratified by each country's congress on February 26, 1942.

By the terms of the Protocol, Ecuador agreed to withdraw its long-standing claim for rights to direct land access to the Marañon and Amazon rivers; Peru agreed to withdraw Peruvian military forces from Ecuadorian territory. An area of 200,000km² (77.200 square miles) of hitherto disputed territory in the Maynas region of the Amazonian basin was awarded to Peru, which has been established to be de facto possessor of the land since the end of the 19th century. The "status quo" line defined in the 1936 Lima Accord was used as the basis for the definitive border line; the previous border recognized current possessions, but not sovereignty. Relative to the 1936 line, Ecuador ceded 18.552 km² of previously possessed territory to Peru, while Peru ceded 5.072 km² of previously possessed territory to Ecuador.

PROTOCOL OF PEACE, FRIENDSHIP, AND BOUNDARIES BETWEEN ECUADOR AND PERU

The governments of Ecuador and Peru, desiring to settle the boundary dispute which over a long period of time had separated them, and taking into consideration the offer which was made to them by the governments of the United States, Brazil, Argentina, and Chile to seek a prompt and honorable solution to the problem and moved by the American spirit which prevails in the Third Consultative Meeting of the Ministers of Foreign Affairs of the American



Republics, resolved to sign a protocol of peace, friendship, and boundaries in the presence of the representatives of those four friendly governments. To this end, the following plenipotentiaries took part:

For the Republic of Peru, Doctor Alfredo Solf y Muro, Minister of Foreign Affairs; and for the Republic of Ecuador, Doctor Julio Tobar Donoso, Minister of Foreign Affairs; who after having exhibited the respective full powers of the parties, and having found them in good and due form, agree to the signing go the following protocol:

ARTICLE I

The Governments of Ecuador and Peru solemnly affirm their resolute intention of maintaining between the two peoples relations of peace and friendship, of understanding and good faith and of abstaining, the one with respect to the other, from any action capable of disturbing such relations.

ARTICLE II

The Government of Peru shall, within a period of 15 days from this date, withdraw its military forces to the lines described in article VIII of this protocol.

ARTICLE III

The United States of America, Argentina, Brazil, and Chile shall cooperate, by means of military observers, in order to adjust to circumstances this evacuation and retirement of troops, according to the terms of the preceding article.

ARTICLE IV

The military forces of the two countries shall remain in their new positions until the definitive demarcation of the frontier line. Until then, Ecuador shall have only civil jurisdiction in the zones evacuated by Peru, which remain in the same status as the demilitarization zone of the Talara Act.



ARTICLE V

The activity of the United States, Argentina, Brazil, and Chile shall continue until the definitive demarcation of frontiers between Ecuador and Peru has been completed, this protocol and the execution thereof being under the guaranty of the four countries mentioned at the beginning of this article.

ARTICLE VI

Ecuador shall enjoy, for purposes of navigation on the Amazon and its northern tributaries, the same concessions which Brazil and Colombia enjoy, in addition to those which may be agreed upon in a Treaty of Commerce and Navigation designed to facilitate free and untaxed navigation on the aforesaid rivers.

ARTICLE VII

Any doubt or disagreement which may arise in the execution of this protocol shall be settled by the parties concerned, with the assistance of the representatives of the United States, Argentina, Brazil, and Chile in the shortest possible time.

ARTICLE VIII

The boundary line shall follow the points named below:

A) In the West:

The mouth of the Capones in the ocean;

The Zarumilla River and the Balsamal or Lajas Quebrada;

The Puyango or Tumbes River to the Quebrada de Cazaderos;
Cazaderos;

The Quebrada de Pilares y del Alamor to the Chira River;

The Chira River, upstream;

The Macara, Calvas and Espindola Rivers, upstream, to the sources of the last mentioned in the Nudo de Sabanillas;

From the Nudo de Sabanillas to the Canchis River;

Along the whole course of the Canchis River, downstream;



The Chinchipe River, downstream to the point at which it receives the San Francisco River.

B) In the East:

From the Quebrada San Francisco, the watershed between the Zamora and Santiago Rivers, to the confluence of the Santiago Rivers with the Yaupi;

A line to the outlet of the Bobonaza into Pastaza. The confluence of the Conambo River with the Pintoyacu in the Tiger River;

Outlet of the Cononaco into the Curaray, downstream, to Bellavista;

A line to the outlet of the Yasuni into the Napo River. Along the Napo, downstream, to the mouth of the Aguarico;

Along the latter, upstream, to the confluence of the Lagartococha or Zancudo River with the Aguarico;

The Lagartococha or Zancudo River, upstream, to its sources and from there a straight line meeting the Güepi River and along this river to its outlet into the Putumayo, and along the Putumayo upstream to the boundary of Ecuador and Colombia.

ARTICLE IX

It is understood that the line above described shall be accepted by Peru and Ecuador for the demarcation of the boundary between the two countries, by technical experts, on the grounds. The parties may, however, when the line is being laid out on the ground, grant such reciprocal concessions as they may consider advisable in order to adjust the aforesaid line to geographical realities. These rectifications shall be made with the collaboration of the representatives of the United States of America, the Argentine Republic, Brazil, and Chile.

The Governments of Ecuador and Peru shall submit this protocol to their respective Congresses and the corresponding approval is to be obtained within a period of no more than 30 days.



In witness thereof, the plenipotentiaries mentioned above sign and seal the present protocol, in two copies, in Spanish, in the city of Rio de Janeiro, at one o'clock, the twenty-ninth day of January, of the year nineteen hundred and forty-two, under the auspices of His Excellency the President of Brazil and in the presence of the Ministers of Foreign Affairs of the Argentine Republic, Brazil, Chile, and of the Under Secretary of State of the United States of America.

(SIGNED ALSO BY REPRESENTATIVES OF THE UNITED STATES OF AMERICA, ARGENTINA, BRAZIL, AND CHILE)

Signed at Rio de Janeiro, January 29, 1942

Approved by the Congress of Ecuador and Peru, February 26, 1942.⁹

ECUADOR'S OBJECTIONS TO THE PROTOCOL AND THESIS OF NULLITY

After some years of signing the Rio Protocol, six times during the demarcation process technical problems were found and referred to the guarantors, with Brazil acting as lead. One of them, which involved the demarcation of the Cordillera del Condor, was submitted to arbitration by Captain Braz Dias de Aguiar. Both countries initially accepted the arbiter's award, issued July 1945, and began in the area according to that ruling.

During 1943 and 1946 the United States Air Force performed several aerial reconnaissance missions over the Cordillera del Condor region (losing 2 aircraft and 14 men in accidents) to help in the demarcation efforts. They found that the Cenepa River was much longer than previously thought and that it runs between the Zamora and the Santiago. This finding conflicted with article VIII, point B-1 of the Rio Protocol, which laid out delineation of the border for that area as follows:

⁹ http://www.worldlingo.com/ma/enwiki/en/Rio_Protocol



From the Quebrada de San Francisco, the watershed between the Zamora and Santiago Rivers, to the confluence of the Santiago River with the Yaupi;

The difficulty was that there was not one watershed between the Zamora and the Santiago, but two, as interpreted by Ecuador. This resulted in Ecuadorian president Galo Plaza halting demarcation in 1949. About 78 kilometers of border were left unmarked. In 1953 Ecuador withdrew from the Demarcation Commissions, claiming the Protocol “impossible to implement” in that area.

On September 29, 1960 Ecuadorian president José María Velasco Ibarra declared the Rio Protocol null and void. (Peruvian analysts had speculated that this was a politically motivated move by Velasco Ibarra, who was considered a populist, but evidence to support this assertion was totally circumstantial.)

With the sole exception of Cuba, the American community did not approve of Ecuador's diplomatic move, with the United States sending a letter of protest to Ecuador.

The arguments for what was called Ecuador's *thesis of nullity* varied, but they were generally the following:

- It was imposed by military force.
- It was signed while Ecuadorian towns were under occupation; invasion and occupation of nation states were prohibited by international law.
- International law did not accept the conquest of territory by force of violence. Even considering de facto possession (1936 status quo border line) Peru took about 14,000km² of territory.
- There was lack of compliance by Peru in denying Ecuador free navigation in Amazonian rivers as stipulated.
- It was a blow to the economic development of a South American country, which was contrary to existing pacts of cooperation.¹⁰

¹⁰ HOLGUIN Arias, Rubén, “Estudios Sociales N° 6”, Ed. Graficas Mediavilla Hnos., Quito, Ecuador, 1999, pages 147-148



Peru's counter-arguments included the following:

- Ecuador could not unilaterally invalidate a protocol.
- The core argument on implementation ability was a democratic issue, not a justification to invalidate the entire protocol.
- Peru disputed the notion that the protocol was imposed by premeditated military force.
- Even though the protocol was signed while Peruvian troops were still occupying El Oro for tactical reasons, the Ecuadorian Congress ratified it long after Peruvian troops had left.
- Several Peruvian governments restricted the navigation clause in response to Ecuador's position on the treaty.
- On the issue of conquest of territory by force, Peru had pointed out that the disputed territories (Tumbes, Jaen and Maynes) were not under de jure Ecuadorian administration, and that the Province El Oro was not annexed to Peru.

Ecuador argued its thesis extensively for 30 days, but it did not find support in the international community.

Peru's position, on the other hand, was that a dispute did not exist at all after 1941, a position which lasted until 1995, when it was recognized as a problematic diplomatic issue.

The Ecuadorian government alleged that the Protocol was invalid, because it had been signed under coercion while foreign troops were stationed on Ecuadorian soil. This stance was modified by subsequent governments, but it was never officially reverted until the resolution of the dispute in 1995.

The intended goal of the Rio Protocol was not fulfilled until the signing of the Itamaraty Peace Declaration in 1995. Between the signing of the two treaties, the Paquisha Incident and the Cenepa War rekindled the dispute.

Maps published in Ecuador since the 1960s up to the end of the 20th century officially had to exclude the unmarked 78 kilometers of border, that was, the Rio



Protocol line was drawn as unresolved, and to include what Ecuador considered as its own right, according to the Pedemonte-Mosquera protocol (1830) line, which put the Marañon (Amazon) rivers as the border between Ecuador and Peru.

Such controversial maps of Ecuador, known in Ecuador as “Tufiño’s map” were referred in Peru as “mapa recortado del Peru” (cut-off map of Peru).

3.2 IMPACT OF THE RIO PROTOCOL ON ECUADOR

This dispute was unique and significant in the study of causes and resolution of international conflict. Ecuador and Peru are populated by people who share a language, a culture, a religious preference, with basically the same social and ethnic diversity and comparable economic difficulties, and they are also both democracies.

Peru and Ecuador had had an old territorial dispute since their independence in the early nineteenth century, claiming an area of about 80,000 square miles lying to the north of the Marañon River, not far from the Amazon River. Their boundary conflict over the “Oriente” resulted from the ambiguous border definition of the former colonial units and the emergence of wild rubber as a potential resource in the area. Despite occasional efforts at mediation, no solution was found and border skirmishes became frequent. These escalated in July 1941 into a short but intensive undeclared war, culminating with a Peruvian blitzkrieg into Ecuadorian territory.

Ecuador was compelled to accept the Protocol of Rio de Janeiro. Ecuador recognized Peruvian sovereignty over most of the disputed territory and surrendered another 5,000 square miles. The new boundary line not only caused Ecuador to lose two-thirds of the “Oriente Province,” which it considered its own, but also deprived it of an outlet to the Amazon River.



For about thirty years after the signing of the Rio Protocol, Ecuadorian foreign policy actively pursued in numerous international meetings the nullification of the entire Rio Protocol. The territorial conflict persisted and further escalated into armed confrontations in 1981 and most recently in January 1995. Only after the brief war of 1995, did Ecuador surprisingly change its revisionist attitude, accepting the Rio Protocol as valid but with shortcomings. This opened the way to negotiations and mediation, and to the active participation, good offices, and even arbitration of the guarantor powers, leading to the ultimate resolution of the conflict in the Peace Treaty of October 1998.

With the conclusion of the Rio protocol of 1942, the Ecuadorian case was closed from a legal standpoint. Hence, its subsequent rejection of the Protocol between 1960 and 1995 could be considered a subversive challenge of the accepted rules of international law, in the name of justice and morality. Unfortunately, for Ecuador, it had been the weaker side, both in terms of its legal arguments and in terms of its power relation vis-à-vis Peru, though the results of the war of 1995 slightly changed the power equation between the two countries. The change was more psychological than real and opened the way for some form of political compromise between the two parties.

The final agreement of October 1998 remained within the pre-established legal and territorial parameters of the Rio Protocol of 1942. In the last few years, following the 1995 war, the parties changed their nationalist rhetoric, agreeing that trade and development were more important than nationalist symbols. Alongside their conflicts, a series of common interests and institutions involving the two countries pushed the two countries in the direction of resolving their enduring dispute. Both shared a common stance on the Latin American thesis of the 200 miles in the debates on the Law of the Sea; both were partners in the Andean Group and the Amazon Treaty. Moreover, both governments faced a poor economy and few resources to devote to another military round. Ecuador's stronger performance in the 1995 war meant that any concessions it made in the near future would not be interpreted as an act of coercion. As economic and trade integration in the Andean Company proceeded, Ecuador and Peru



became increasingly aware of the cost that their dispute exacted by denying them the advantages of normal economic and political relations. Finally, from a normative and legal standpoint, with great help and assistance from the guarantor powers, Peru and Ecuador eventually returned to the original formula already established in the 1942 Protocol: Ecuador would give up its quixotic claims to the disputed land. In return, it would have permanent access, though not sovereignty, to the Amazon River.

After Ecuador signed the protocol of Rio de Janeiro, it had to suffer a series of economic, political, social, and geographic changes.

ECONOMIC IMPACT

One of the concerns both countries had was the impact of the dispute on foreign investment. Thomas McLarty, US envoy at the resolution talks, said peace was essential to South America's economic recovery. He added: "You clearly cannot have long-term growth and prosperity involving foreign investment without stability."¹¹ While there were still political instability issues in the region, resolution of the territorial conflict was helpful.

Trade between both countries benefited considerably. Before signing the peace treaty, annual trade between Ecuador and Peru was about 100 million dollars. But as early 1998, it had increased 5-fold.

There was also a broad agreement of integration between both countries. It included a bi-national fund of peace and development, national plans for productive, social and environmental development, and so on.

¹¹http://www.bing.com/reference/semhtml/History_of_the_Ecuadorian%E2%80%93Peruvian_territorial_dispute



POLITICAL IMPLICATIONS

Carlos Arroyo del Rio was elected the Ecuadorian president in 1940. Peru invaded Ecuador in the following year and, after a short campaign, succeeded in annexing a large part of the Oriente by the protocol signed at Rio de Janeiro in 1942. The administration was criticized for the loss, but under wartime powers Arroyo del Rio held tight control of the nation and vigorously suppressed his opponents.

As a result of the Ecuadorian-Peruvian territorial dispute, a number of emerging views about international affairs, U.S. foreign policy, and modern American affairs were either shattered or seriously challenged. Some of the global and regional political implications of the dispute which had been noted were the following:

- It was a blow to the idea that democracies did not go to war with one another. An armed conflict between these two nations had existed well before then, nevertheless, on and off with major confrontations occurring in 1941, 1981 and 1995. Ecuador and Peru had both been fully fledged democracies for the most part in modern times, although of course not perfect or politically stable.
- It was a blow to the idea that Latin America was a model for peaceful international relations. It was a reminder that there were other territorial disputes and conflicting claims among other Latin American countries which could potentially threaten peace in the region.

PUBLIC HEALTH IMPACT

In Ecuador, the public health program has made remarkable improvement through national efforts and international co-operation. The eradication early in the 20th century of yellow fever, which had delayed the development of Guayaquil, was the beginning of progress by improving health conditions. Considerable progress also has been made in combating malaria and tuberculosis. After signing the protocol of Rio de Janeiro, Ecuador began to



receive important aid from the United States and in co-operation with the United States Institute of Inter-American Affairs, Ecuador was able to eliminate malaria as a cause of death (as late as 1942 nearly 25% of all deaths were caused by that disease). Also, in co-operation with the World Health organization, Ecuador could introduce programs to prevent and control tuberculosis, smallpox, venereal diseases, typhus, and malnutrition.

BOUNDARIES IMPACT

Ecuador's present boundaries were set by the protocol of Rio de Janeiro, to which Ecuador agreed after defeat by superior Peruvian forces in 1941; under it Ecuador lost about 70.000 square miles of territory, nearly two-thirds of Ecuador's Oriente or Amazonian territory.

The task of fixing the new boundary line in difficult, unexplored areas was continued for many years by an Ecuadorian-Peruvian commission, but the boundary still had not been completely established by the late 1950s.

3.2.1 THE IMPACT ON THE GEOGRAPHY OF ECUADOR

Control over territory in the Amazon basin led to a long-lasting dispute between Ecuador and Peru. In 1941, in the midst of fast-growing tensions between the two countries, war broke out. Peru claimed that Ecuador's military presence in Peruvian-claimed territory was an invasion while Ecuador, on the other hand, claimed Peru invaded Ecuador. In July 1941, troops were mobilized. Peru had an army of 11,681 troops, facing a poorly supplied and badly armed Ecuadorian force of 5,300 soldiers, of which a little over 1,300 were deployed in the southern provinces of the country. Hostilities broke on July 5, 1941, when Peruvian forces crossed the Zarumilla River on several spots, testing the strength and disposition of the Ecuadorian border troops. Finally, on July 23, 1941, the Peruvians launched a major invasion, crossing the Zarumilla River in force and advancing into the Ecuadorian province of El Oro. Over the course of the war Peru gained control over all the disputed territory and occupied the



Ecuadorian province of El Oro and some parts of the province of Loja (some 65% of the former country), demanding that the Ecuadorian government give up its territorial claims. The Peruvian Navy blocked the port of Guayaquil, cutting supplies to the Ecuadorian troops. After a few weeks of war and under pressure by the U.S. and several Latin American nations, all fighting came to a stop. Ecuador and Peru came to an accord formalized in the Rio Protocol, signed on January 29, 1942, in favor of hemispheric unity against the Axis Powers in World War II. As a result of its victory, Peru was awarded the disputed territory. Two more wars, and a peace agreement reached in 1999, would follow to finally end the dispute. Both wars were undeclared.

The Protocol of Rio de Janeiro, dated January 29, 1942, signed between Ecuador and Peru under circumstances in which Ecuadorian territory and sovereignty were subject to armed coercion, suffers from a basic geographic error because of the inexistence of one of the features which should serve as a boundary line.

Article VIII of the Protocol sets forth the line between the two countries. In paragraph 1, clause B of this article, it is established that the boundary shall follow along "San Francisco creek, the "divortium aquarum" between the Zamora River and the Santiago River, to the confluence of the Santiago River with the Yaupi". As soon as demarcation of the border starting at San Francisco creek was undertaken, problems arose in the identification of that border, for which reason both countries requested the cooperation of the United States Air Force. The latter prepared an aero photogrammetric map of the area, which was delivered to the Parties in February 1947.

That map showed that, between the Zamora and Santiago rivers, there extended for a distance of more than 190 kilometers (118 miles), a new, independent water system, that of the Cenepa River, a direct affluent of the Marañon, which with its sources reaches the northern ridges of the El Condor mountain range.



Until then, that river had been considered a creek of little importance, whose northernmost headwaters did not extend beyond the latitude of the mouth of the Santiago River.

If the Cenepa river was interposed for a long distance between the system of the Santiago and that of the Zamora, it was evident that for the entire length of such interposition there was no watershed between those two rivers and that, for the same reason, there where it had been supposed that a single "divortium aquarum" existed, there were to be found at least two main watersheds: the one interposed between the Cenepa and the Zamora, and the one which ran between the Cenepa and the Santiago, neither of which had been considered as a boundary line in the text of the Protocol.

The inexistence of the geographic feature expressly referred to in the Protocol of 1942, in Article VIII, paragraph 1, clause b, thus determined the inexistence of the boundary line in that sector and, as a logical consequence, that situation prevented the implementation of the treaty in one sector due to a basic and unavoidable error; it was set up that the line should follow through a non-existent geographical feature.

The impossibility of implementing the Protocol in the southern sector of the Zamora-Santiago area likewise made it impossible to continue demarcation work in that stretch, since there was no line along which to set boundary markers. For this reason, the Government of Ecuador, through direct dealings with that of Peru, sought a means to solve the problem that had arisen. In effect, on September 15, 1949, the Ambassador of Ecuador in Lima, on instructions from his Government, delivered to the Peruvian Foreign Office a note requesting the setting up of a special mixed commission which would be entrusted with the task of a broad and sufficient reconnaissance and study of the Zamora-Santiago area, especially the course of the Cenepa River, in order to ascertain the true geography of the area. Peru replied to this communication by a note on October 13, refusing to accept the proposal of the Government of Ecuador and requesting that demarcation of the area continue, with the assistance of a Brazilian technician Ecuador, in reply to this document on March



25, 1950, insisted on its initial requirement. No reply to this insistence was received.

In view of Peru's reluctance to consider the problem and accept the fair and adequate suggestions of Ecuador, the Ecuadorian Foreign Office placed the controversy in the hands of the mediating countries, guarantors of the Protocol of 1942, which on May 16, 1956, contacted the two Parties to advise them that they wished to have available the data necessary to seek a solution to the "matter of boundaries" existing between the two countries. In this connection, the guarantors suggested the advisability of a survey that might be entrusted to the Inter- American Geodetic Survey, USA, and they requested that the two countries facilitate the work that the said institution would carry out. Ecuador hastened to accept the suggestion of the guarantors. Peru, on the contrary, declined to give the acquiescence and cooperation requested, obstinately standing by its thesis that there was no problem to discuss between the two States.

Peruvian disavowal of the problem can not affect the actual existence of the Ecuadorian-Peruvian territorial controversy, nor this specific situation of the inexistence of the watershed considered in the Protocol. For the former, suffice is to refer to the definition of "controversy" given in international law and jurisprudence: "controversy" is a disagreement on a point of law or of fact, a contradiction of juridical theses or of interests between two persons" (Judgment of the International Court of Justice, August 30, 1942, in the case of the Mavrommatis concessions in Palestine). "The existence of controversy must be established objectively. The mere fact that the existence of a controversy be disputed does not prove that the controversy does not exist" (Consultative opinion of the International Court of Justice, March 30, 1950, regarding the Treaties of Peace between the Allies and Hungary, Bulgaria and Rumania, I.C.J. Reports, 1950).

Peru has stated that the Zamora-Santiago matter has already been settled by the award of the Brazilian arbiter Braz Dias de Aguiar, made on July 15, 1945,



in connection with several differences that arose in the process of demarcation of the eastern sector of the line of the Protocol of Rio de Janeiro.

Peru has added that further discussion is unwarranted, given that the problem was settled by an award. This position lacks a basis.

The award of Dias de Aguiar was made on July 15, 1945. The problem of the southern sector of the Zamora-Santiago area did not arise until 1947, after delivery to the Parties of the aero photogrammetric map that revealed the true geography of the area, poorly known until then. How could Dias de Aguiar have solved a problem that had not yet arisen?

The award of the Brazilian arbiter referred only to the northern sector of the area, where at the time a difference had shown up, a difference whose contents and solution are totally dissimilar and independent of the problem in the southern sector.

The arbiter recognized that the "divortium aquarum" Zamora- Santiago does not terminate in the confluence of the Santiago River and Yaupi. In his award he established a line accepting the Ecuadorian position; Peru officially acknowledged that the southern sector of the Zamora-Santiago area was not the subject of arbitral decision. As an example of the acknowledgement we can mention the note that the Chairman of the Peruvian Demarcation Commission addressed to his Ecuadorian counterpart on April 2, 1945.

It is true that the arbiter in his award referred to the "divortium aquarum" between the Zamora and Santiago rivers, which he supposed existed from the San Francisco creek. But this has no meaning other than being a repetition or quotation of the provision of the Protocol. Yet even in the case that this reference were in reality a definition of the arbiter's will that the boundary line follow along this geographic feature, the award would not have defined the boundary in that sector, since, upon confirming with its provisions those already set forth in the Protocol, it would suffer from the latter's own errors and defects. It would be inapplicable.



Before the true geography of the Zamora-Santiago area became known by means of the aero photogrammetric map of the region, the demarcation commissions improperly placed 10 boundary markers along the line of the El Condor mountain range, under the mistaken supposition that they were demarcating the line of the Protocol of Rio de Janeiro. On that supposition, these 10 markers were approved by the Chairmen of the Demarcation Commissions. Demarcation work in the area was suspended for some time, and when it began again in 1947 two additional boundary markers were in placed. At this time Ecuador had the aero photogrammetric map prepared by the United States, and it was able to ascertain that the work performed by the demarcation commissions was not in the geographic feature mentioned in the Protocol. Thus the last two markers were not approved. North of these markers there is nothing, neither approved nor unapproved markers.

Peru sought to find proof of the existence of the line in the southern sector of the Zamora-Santiago area; in fact, the aforementioned 12 boundary markers had been placed there erroneously (this sentence is not very clear). This thesis had been refuted by Ecuador no more than one occasion. Thus, in 1954 Peru was advised that, since it was not possible to doubt the inexistence of the geographic feature mentioned in the Protocol, "the sovereignty of the two countries in the aforementioned sector" was consequently undefined "because of the inexistence of a boundary line therein.

This lack of line is what in international law is called a lack of delimitation, a very different idea, of course, from the mere lack of demarcation or inexistence of boundary markers, which, in order to have legal standing, requires not only the prior existence of a boundary line, but further, that the said line be real, feasible of implementation and, consequently, valid".

Since the area in dispute has not been delimited, in order to delimit it, an agreement to that effect between Ecuador and Peru would be necessary in this case. So long as such an agreement does not exist, one of the two countries between which the difference has arisen cannot compel the other to accept a



line of delimitation. For the same reasons, even less can it arrogate to itself absolute sovereignty in the territories not delimited.

Consequently, the Protocol of Rio de Janeiro, whatever may have been its legal standing, did not establish a boundary line between San Francisco creek and the headwaters of the Coangos River, due to the inexistence of the geographic feature it provided for as a line in that sector. There is no instrument whatsoever that will remedy the lack of a line in the sector.

The area without delimitation located north of the Marañon and west of the Santiago, has always been Ecuadorian. In this connection, one must, of necessity, be guided by the rights that each of the two countries has in the region. It must be remembered that Peru, in relation to this area, has acknowledged that "nowhere else is" Peruvian law "less worthy of being upheld"; that it cannot allege "even a shadow of right" in connection with it; that it could not demand it "with any right worthy of being heeded"; that one cannot discern the title "nor even the pretext with which Peru" might claim it; that it could not be claimed by that country "under guise of justice" (Report sent to the Government of Peru by Dr. Arturo Garcia, Envoy Extraordinary and Minister Plenipotentiary in Quito, Lima, August 9, 1980).

Consequently, only Ecuador can rightly occupy the area. Peru has no title, right, reason or pretext (since the Protocol of Rio de Janeiro is not applicable to it) to demand it or occupy it. If Ecuador has military posts in that area, in now way have they been located in Peruvian territory, nor have they, therefore, been within Peruvian sovereignty, as this country's Government has been stating baselessly.

In spite of the irrefutable geographic fact of the inexistence of the Zamora-Santiago watershed and the consequent impossibility of implementing the Protocol in that sector, Peru pretends that the only thing remaining to be done is the demarcation of 78 kilometers (48.4 miles), i.e., the stretch of the El Condor range between the last of the improperly placed boundary markers in the area's southern sector. It has been stated that in the entire southern part of the



Zamora-Santiago area there is no delimitation and that, therefore, no demarcation is warranted. However, even should this impossibility not exist, there is nothing in the Protocol that allows the interpretation that, for the negotiators, the line should have followed along the El Condor mountain range. On the contrary, sufficient and very clear documents exist, among them an unequivocal one of Peru's, that the El Condor range could not be taken into account in demarcation because the Protocol does not mention it. This is an official communication from the Chairman of the Peruvian Demarcation Commission to his Ecuadorian counterpart on October 18, 1943.

The Brazilian arbiter Braz Dias de Aguiar likewise discarded the El Condor mountain range as an element in the demarcation. In the conclusions in his judgment relating to the difference that arose in the northernmost sector of the Zamora-Santiago area, which is different from that of the controversy to which we have been referring, he states specifically that, in accordance with the Protocol, demarcation "should be made along the "Zamora-Santiago "divortium aquarum", without regard to its being or not being the line of the El Condor mountain range".

Thus, even if one accepts the Peruvian thesis of the feasibility of implementation of the Protocol of Rio de Janeiro, nothing would oblige Ecuador to accept the El Condor range as the border between the two countries.

The sector that was the subject of serious incidents in January and February 1995, in which Peru repeatedly attacked various Ecuadorian military garrisons, is not only within the Zamora-Santiago area, in which Peru lacks all rights, but further, it is in an area where there were not even acts of invalid demarcation, as occurred in other sectors. But Peru has attacked not only those garrisons, but also others located in a totally different sector of the conflict area.

Therefore, Ecuador can never accept the assertion that it has maintained military garrisons in Peruvian territory, and even less, that this could have served as a pretext for Peru to attack these garrisons and to adopt a war stance against a country that has invariably stated, and continues to state, that the only



legitimate manner of solving any type of controversy is by peaceful means within the terms of law and justice, in keeping with the standards of the United Nations or of regional bodies such as the Organization of the American States.

In conclusion:

- a) The Protocol of Rio de Janeiro between Ecuador and Peru, in addition to being the result of the armed coercion, suffers from an essential geographical error;
- b) The "divortium aquarum" between the Zamora and Santiago rivers stated in the Rio Protocol does not exist. Instead, there are two watersheds, one between the Zamora and Cenepa rivers, and another, between the Cenepa and Santiago rivers;
- c) El Condor mountain range is not the watershed between the Zamora and Santiago rivers but rather between the Zamora and Cenepa rivers;
- d) The permanent diplomatic action of Ecuador from 1949 to 1959 did not bring any result in order to set up a Special Mixed Commission entrusted with the task of reconnaissance and study of the Zamora-Santiago zone, particularly the course of the Cenepa river, with the purpose of verifying the geographic reality;
- e) The Peruvian attitude of refusing the Ecuadorian reasons under the arbitrary argument that there was no problem whatsoever is absolutely unacceptable. However, President Fujimori accepted the existence of the problem in 1991, and the Peruvian Foreign Minister also recognized the problem in the OAS General Assembly, Nassau, May 1992;
- f) Peru may deny validity to the Ecuadorian position, but it should technically prove the basis of its negation by means of a geographical draft.
- g) From the juridical viewpoint, neither the Protocol of Rio de Janeiro sets forth El Condor mountain range as boundary, nor the award of arbiter Dias de Aguiar, 1945, could have established it, because the real extension and importance of the Cenepa river was only established in 1947, with the aero



photogrammetric map of the Zamora-Santiago area. In this region, consequently, no delimitation or demarcation boundaries exist;

g) This zone without delimitation has been always Ecuadorian, as proved by juridical titles and several Peruvian declarations recognizing it;

h) The area where the military attacks of Peru have taken place lies within the Zamora-Santiago zone, area over which Peru lacks rights.

3.3 THE SOCIAL IMPACT

Historically, the major security challenges to the country and its military were external in nature, usually involving issues of borders and territorial disputes. Peru engaged in more foreign wars after independence than any other Latin American country, although most occurred in the nineteenth century (Colombia, 1828; Argentina, 1836-37; Chile, 1836-39; Bolivia, 1827-29, 1835, and 1841; Ecuador, 1858-59; Spain, 1863-66; Chile, 1879-1883). Most of the nineteenth-century conflicts went badly for Peru. The most disastrous was the War of the Pacific against Chile. In many ways, this conflict could be considered more significant than the gaining of independence, given the war's impact on the development of present-day Peru.

In the twentieth century, the Peruvians, as late as 1992, had engaged in two wars and two significant border skirmishes. In the Leticia War of 1932-33, named after the Amazonian city, the Peruvian army and naval units were unable to keep Colombia from holding onto territory originally ceded by Peru in 1922 in the Salomon-Lozano Treaty. The 1941 war with Ecuador, however, was a major success for Peruvian forces. Peru had established the first paratroop unit in the region and used it to good effect; the first combat in the hemisphere involving airborne troops resulted in the capture of Ecuador's Puerto Bolivar on July 27, 1941. By the end of the month, when military actions ceased, Peru held Ecuador's southernmost province of El Oro and much of the disputed eastern jungle territory that had been part of Ecuador since the 1830s. The Rio Protocol



of February 1942 awarded to Peru some 205,000 square kilometers of previously disputed Amazon territory.

Ecuador repudiated the Rio Protocol in 1960, and border incidents occurred periodically thereafter. None were as serious as the January 1981 incursion by Ecuadorian troops that led to a partial mobilization of forces by both countries. The dispute was resolved, much to Ecuador's displeasure, by the original guarantors of the Rio Protocol--the United States, Argentina, Brazil, and Chile. Periodic incidents since have indicated that problems remain, particularly along a seventy-eight kilometer stretch of the border known as Cordillera del Condor, which was never marked off under the terms of the Rio Protocol. Tensions between Peru and Ecuador increased in 1992 after Ecuadorian troops were alleged to have crossed the border in July in a section that had been marked (a charge that Ecuador denied). However, urgent conversations between the two governments led to an interim agreement in October in hopes of avoiding a new border crisis. .

As we know, at the time that the Second World War began it was affecting more deeply the countries which were not involved in the conflict. Arroyo had to face the problem of the American solidarity against the common enemy Ecuador helped the countries into the conflict which were declaring war to Germany and Japan, sending raw materials for the defense of the hemisphere and partaking responsibility in the Pan-American movement.

The People of Ecuador were in agreement with the Rio Protocol, and the people accepted everything this international record imposed, but demanded explanations from the government. A public protest against Arroyo, the Cabinet, and the Ambassador took place, making them responsible for the war between Peru and Ecuador.



3.3.1 EXILE OF AN ECUADORIAN- GERMAN FAMILY

On January 1, 1942 an article in the Ecuadorian newspaper *El Mercurio* outlined the important decisions that were to be made at the Pan American Conference in Rio de Janeiro, Brazil. The primary initiative was to "reconstruct the world order." The new world order relied on the cooperation of the American nations in the Western Hemisphere. The second initiative was to restrict the activities of "foreigners" in American republics. This was an effort to block any economic activity involving citizens or businesses associated with any element of Axis countries. This objective required an exchange of information related to the presence of foreigners and foreign elements in countries of the Americas. The exchange of information led to the development of blacklists that were ordered, unbeknownst to most American citizens, by J. Edgar Hoover as early as 1940.¹² What is clear in Ecuadorian newspapers, but not so clear in U.S. history, is that the initiative and the blacklists that forced many German citizens as well as Ecuadorians of German heritage from Ecuador came from the United States.¹³

By mid-January Ecuador had agreed to cooperate with the United States, but it had threatened to pull out of the Pan American conference if nothing was done about the Ecuador-Peru border conflict. At that time, the crucial border treaty was considered a greater issue of national interest than the united effort against international, and more specifically, *Axis elements* in Ecuador.

Cooperation with the Conference directives began immediately, however. On January 16, thirteen days before Ecuador broke off diplomatic relations with Axis countries, reports from Quito revealed that twenty-one Germans were to be interned in the Andean city of Riobamba. From this date on the activities of foreigners in Ecuador were increasingly restricted. On January 26 sixteen Central and South American countries broke off diplomatic relations with Axis countries. Ecuador announced its break in relations on January 29, 1942.



THE BLACK LIST

The "Lista Negra de los Estados Unidos" (the United States' blacklist), or as the U.S. called it, "The Proclaimed List of Certain Blocked Nationals" of people and businesses to be restricted in the Americas, originated in the United States, although it seems that the U.S. State Department did not want its involvement to be common knowledge.¹⁴ The involvement of the U.S. was common knowledge among the internationals under surveillance in Ecuador, and the principal players in the business of restricting activities and internment were clearly identified in the Ecuadorian press releases.

By March 30 a *new* blacklist had been distributed in Ecuador and newspapers around the country reported the problems this new list caused in the major cities. Some angry businessmen and internationals living in Ecuador protested to the U.S. American Legation that they had not participated in Axis activities nor in the propagation of its doctrines after the unveiling of the "new" list. The newspapers indicated there was to be no recourse through the Ecuadorian Government as this was clearly a U.S. initiative carried out by Ecuadorian National Security agents, Alien and Immigration agents, and, more importantly, investigative agents associated with the United States.

The blacklists, which were not available to the general public but leaked to the press, included farmers, merchants, bakers, sausage shop personnel, teachers at the German School, diplomats, grain operators, architects, brew masters, hardware store clerks, and hotel personnel, for example.¹⁵ Even as late as March 1943 the blacklists included names of people and firms that sounded international as well as those who were truly international. Some of these people fought extradition and were able to secure Ecuadorian nationalization. Some Ecuadorian-born citizens of international heritage determined to leave Ecuador because they were pro-German or considered themselves German citizens. Others who had been born and raised in Ecuador and who were raising their own children, often with Ecuadorian spouses, found that their only



option for survival was to relocate to a country they had never visited since their economic situation became unbearable due to restrictions placed on them.

The means for leaving Ecuador, however, also involved choosing to accept German citizenship over Ecuadorian citizenship. The "choice" seemed, for all intents and purposes, to be a permanent one, and required, in most cases, leaving family, friends, language, and culture behind. The "choice" to leave also meant taking part in the U.S. initiative and propaganda to sweep the Americas clean of "enemy aliens."

By April the predominance of American advertising was obvious in the press which had only months before been littered with German products. On April 2 *El Comercio* printed a collage of political systems with captions in English. In the collage "Democracy" is portrayed with youths sitting around informally, conversing peacefully in groups of two and three in a park. "Nazism" is portrayed with the Hitler youth marching with flags under five prominent swastikas on a building that stands behind them. "Fascism" is portrayed by a group of very small children dressed in military uniforms under the raised, dominating hand of Mussolini. "Communism" is depicted with young men and women, one smiling and four looking askance with decided trepidation. The very publication of this U.S.-British anti-totalitarian, pro-democracy propaganda in Spanish-language Ecuadorian newspapers was a clear demonstration of the propaganda meant to sway or cement ideological and national allegiances amongst the literate in Ecuador.

National Security and Investigative agents had already informed many internationals that they were required to leave Ecuador, and the first contingent of internationals began their journey to the coast from Quito on April 4. A U.S. steam ship was scheduled to pick up citizens leaving Ecuador, Peru, Colombia and Panama. Although the newspaper reported that the majority of citizens were leaving voluntarily, the report acknowledged that some were obligated to leave due to their "dangerous activities against the democracies." Fifty-two Axis citizens were leaving Ecuador. Forty-one were Germans and eleven were Japanese. No Italians were leaving because all were married, and no specific



legislation had been put forth concerning internationals married to Ecuadorian citizens. The notified internationals were scheduled to board the ship in Guayaquil on April 7. German and Italian diplomats were scheduled to leave at a later date in April as part of the second contingent that would leave Ecuador.

On April 4 *El Comercio* reported that the Ecuadorian Ambassador Eloy Alfaro and the Undersecretary of State, Sumner Welles, talked about loans for Ecuador. It was the very same day that the official legislation that allowed for the deportation of internationals was signed by Mr. Andrew, Secretary of the North American Legation, Ignacio Dávalos, the Undersecretary of Ecuadorian Foreign Affairs, and the Minister of Spain. Ecuador turned over a number of Axis citizens or Ecuadorian-born citizens of international heritage who would be given safe conduct to the U.S. and to Europe where they would be exchanged for Americans returning to cooperating American countries. The Legislation was to be ratified in Puná aboard the ETOLIN, a ship that was to carry the first contingent of international passengers toward internment or repatriation. The second group of internationals was slated to leave by direct train on or before April 16; these citizens were to travel with the dignitaries and civil servants of the German, Italian, and Japanese Legations.

During the first week of April, *El Comercio* published more than ten newspaper articles concerning the issue of German properties in Ecuador and the expulsion of German internationals living in Ecuador. The newspaper also announced that two Germans, Gunter Liskén and Wilhelm Kehrer, were freed by authorities after they completed paperwork that allowed them to stay in Ecuador legally. In addition, the reports revealed that to avoid confiscation or a block of properties belonging to the German School in Quito, the entire complex of the school was rented to the Pedro Pablo Borja Foundation that ran a school for boys. The annual rent was 20,000 sucres. Two days later Mr. Manuel Utreras Gómez was designated Vice Dean of the German School in Quito, replacing Mr. Sacklowski, of German nationality, who had been ordered to leave the country. The new Vice Dean was presented to the parents of the student



body and to the governing body of the School before assuming his new function.

On the afternoon of April 8 the Minister of Spain, who represented the interests of the Axis countries in Ecuador, the Secretary of the American Legation, the Undersecretary of Foreign Affairs and the Director in Chief of National Security came to an agreement on yet another list of citizens living in Ecuador who would have to leave the country in the next month to be repatriated to their respective countries. They finished the selection at 6:30 in the afternoon and their agents were sent to inform individuals on April 9. The total number of notifications was tallied at 200.

Two newspapers reported that an agreement was made to allow a few individuals to remain in Ecuador to preserve family peace. The report also indicated that Axis citizens married to Ecuadorian women would be allowed to remain in Ecuador. However, the rumor was dispelled a day later by the Undersecretary of Foreign Affairs who declared that this information was false. All agreements concerning the internationals were made in accordance with the new Ecuadorian Government resolution to cooperate with the U.S. and other American Republics, and a direct result of the break in diplomatic relations with Axis countries.

The second group of internationals who were blacklisted was made up of those with diplomatic and consular functions as well as Germans and Italians who conducted private or commercial activities in Ecuador. Some of the individuals had been born in Ecuador and had lived more than thirty years in the country they called home. Therefore, for many, the blacklists created serious problems not only for individuals, but for families and small and large businesses across the country. Due to the disruptions caused by the blacklists, a Press Conference was held on April 9 in the Office of the Director of Labor. Several merchants and business owners who were blacklisted by Great Britain and the United States held the conference with the objective of finding a way to solve the situation created by the blacklists for employees who were out of work due to the closing of private or commercial businesses.



While no concrete solutions were offered, it was determined that each case would be studied independently by the Labor Director and the Minister of the Treasury to see if anything could be done. The report noted that few attended the conference in spite of the numbers of industries, stores, and businesses that had been affected. The low attendance was due in part to a sense of the futility of protesting against the whole relocation project even though internationals were at the center of the Ecuadorian business community. There simply would be little recourse for those affected by the block. Indeed, on April 10 the headlines read "There will be no reprieve for those Businesses included on the blacklists" due to the many considerations and reasons that existed to caution against it (*El Mercurio*). The Department of Labor agreed to attempt to resolve the situation for non-international employees in those businesses and organizations.

Meanwhile the surveillance and notification by National Security and Investigative agents continued. The Director in Chief of National Security, Mr. Ignacio Dávalos, declared that during the day on April 9 agents under his command notified specific Axis citizens who would be obligated to leave the country on April 17. He added that 150 Italian and German citizens had been asked to leave Quito by direct train. The steamer ARCADIA was scheduled to arrive in Guayaquil on April 15; the U.S. transport ship would continue north on April 17 stopping to board citizens at several ports along the way. All notified Axis citizens were ordered to travel on the steamer along with the Ministers of those countries. Included in this group of 200 were German and Italian diplomats and citizens. Again it was reported on April 10 that Axis nationals married to Ecuadorians would be able to stay in the country. The notifications continued in other countries as well. Newspapers reported on April 10 that a train arrived in Arica, Chile, from La Paz, Bolivia, with 120 expelled Germans, Italians, and Japanese. Given the growing number of Axis citizens asked to leave the different countries of the continent, the American government would likely send another ship to carry those passengers. The date of the embarkation had not been set by April 10.



On April 11, the Director-in-Chief of Immigration sent the residency cards that would be distributed to the foreigners who complied with the registration law to the under director of the Immigration Branch in Guayaquil. The list of names was published in the newspaper including 66 names. The report indicated that 30 were still at large. There is no doubt that all internationals were under suspicion, and under investigation, during the first six months of 1942. Newspapers reported that some internationals, the so called *citizens* of Axis countries, had obtained the necessary authorization to continue to reside in Ecuador. These individuals promised not to intervene or become involved in any activity that could compromise Ecuador's foreign relations or disturb the tranquility and security of the Americas. Seven citizens, Partmuts, Wohlermann, Diener, Gubitz, Schultze, Weber and Wickel would be allowed to remain in Ecuador, at least for the time being. Kurt, Grosser, and Halbaun, three Germans who fled the OLMEDO on their way to embark on the ETOLIN, had been arrested, and would be forced to leave on the ARCADIA (*El Comercio*). These three Germans were not the only internationals to flee the authorities. Ell George fled, but was detained at the Cayambe volcano on April 11, and arrested. Four additional Germans fled the ARCADIA during boarding the following week.

For many, the difficult decision to leave Ecuador was preempted by the reality that they faced a political, social, and fiscal nightmare if they fought extradition. In Guayaquil, for example, German and Italian businesses began to liquidate their properties even before they were placed on the blacklists (*El Comercio*). According to newspaper reports, this was a preventative measure against being included on the blacklists, against having their funds blocked or frozen, and from being deported by the Ecuadorian Government. Many felt that if they liquidated their businesses, they might be able to take their money with them out of the country no matter what the decision of the authorities. If they did not liquidate, however, they were convinced their finances were certain to be blocked and their assets frozen.



Ecuadorian internationals were also made aware in a special message to *El Comercio* from Washington that the F.B.I. had captured 2,400 enemy aliens in the United States on April 12. More than 1,500 weapons, 820 swords, daggers and sabers, and nearly 156,700 cartridges were confiscated from detainees. More than 8,000 potential "enemy aliens" in the U.S. had been registered since January and nearly 2,400 had been arrested for contraband. Twelve hundred radios, photographic materials and 1311 cameras, 44 lenses, maps and photographs, German and Italian Army and Naval uniforms, dynamite, gun powder, and sulfuric acid were confiscated by agents. It was also recorded in this message that J. Edgar Hoover, Director of the F.B.I., explained that the arrests were made according to a law from 1941 in which more than 150,000 police and state and local officials were mobilized to act in case of an emergency. The law was enacted in adherence with the order given by President Roosevelt on December 7 and 8 to turn in unlawful equipment with the arrest of those who did not do so. The April 27 report stated that it was possible that these detainees could be interned until the end of the war. Mr. Francis Biddle, Chief Legal Advisor, indicated that all those arrested would be placed under the jurisdiction of the Immigration and Naturalization Service and each case would be handled separately.

Ecuador continued the process of moving internees toward Guayaquil for deportation. On April 12 the Minister of Government ordered the Quartermaster General of Riobamba to send the Japanese interned there on the "mixto" train for Guayaquil on the following morning since they would have to present themselves to the Governor on Wednesday, April 15. The train trip from Riobamba to the port city of Guayaquil could take up to six hours.

More than 110 German and Italian citizens were set to travel to Guayaquil on the fourteenth from Quito. Some were told by authorities to leave the country because of their antidemocratic activities. Baggage was accepted at the Chimbacalle train station until 4 p.m. on April 13. The express train was scheduled to leave at 5:30 a.m. the next morning on a two day trip to Guayaquil. The travelers would join those waiting at the Port for the steamer which was



scheduled to arrive in Guayaquil on April 17. The ARCADIA was scheduled to moor at the estuary and not at Puná to facilitate the boarding of more than 248 citizens from across the country. The large contingent of internationals who had been notified to leave the country was to be turned over to U.S. officials by the Chief of National Security in Guayaquil. There must have been some suspicions of unrest since precautions at the Ministry of Government were enforced until 7 p.m. in Quito that day.

On April 14 the internationals still in Quito read that the German Minister Kleey and the German legation left a half hour later than expected in an express rail car to Guayaquil accompanied by Ricardo Ortíz, an employee of the Chancellery. The Italian and Japanese ministers left around the same time. The train scheduled stops in Ambato, Riobamba and other areas to pick up Axis citizens who had been residing or interned in those locations. The passengers were under the supervision of the Chief of Immigration, some Investigation agents, and the Spanish Minister. The newspapers in Guayaquil and Quito reported that national security agents would take all necessary precautions to ensure that the Governments' orders were followed. Axis diplomats were to be supervised closely by authorities in Guayaquil.

According to the United Press the ARCADIA left El Callao, Peru, at noon on April 13 to make its way to Ecuador. On board were 105 members of the diplomatic corps, and the consuls of Germany, Italy and Japan with their family members. Seven German, nine Italian, and ten Japanese businessmen also left with their families. The businessmen were to be exchanged for an equal number of private citizens, diplomats, and consular agents from American countries who had been living or working in Axis countries. The ship would leave Guayaquil for Buenaventura in order to pick up more German, Italian and Japanese diplomats and subjects in Colombia before heading toward San Francisco, California.

In *El Comercio* on April 15 a curious article was published on the topic of foreigners in Ecuador. No one claimed authorship. "*Los extranjeros* ("The Foreigners") reveals one perspective concerning foreign interests and



development in Ecuador at a time when many of its international citizens were being forced from its borders. Its content is pertinent because of its ideological bent and interpretation of the role of internationals in Ecuador.

THE FOREIGNERS

It is time to conclude that, in the grand scheme of things, we owe a great deal to the hardworking, cultured and honorable foreigners who have undertaken many initiatives and advancements. They have cemented the greatness of many countries. Among them is the Republic of Argentina whose people have confessed with pride that their thriving situation is in part due to the great ease in immigration that the Republic has always allowed.

Ecuador needs to modify its customs, get organized with all seriousness, strengthen its race, augment and select its population. This will be accomplished by means of foreigners. On this point we should proceed with generosity without blocking their path with tricks, nor exploiting them. Let the hard-working, honest foreigners come to help us collaborate in national progress. Let them learn to love this country, let them cultivate its countryside and bring variety to its industries. Now that the currents of immigration seem somewhat spontaneous, let us take advantage of an opportunity that will not repeat itself. Misguided and lazy people are afraid of foreigners and they think that foreigners have come to take the bread right out of their mouths. There is plenty of countryside for everyone. It is just that some countrymen do not want to give up their routines, they do not want to imitate a good example, put away prejudices, work without shame, and without tiring too soon. These hooligans are quixotes, and they make fun of the things that foreigners execute unabashedly, because there is no dishonor in working and in attending to whatever necessity and economics impose on an individual.

No one can say for sure who the author might have been, but certainly the writer shared sympathies with the internationals living in Ecuador and considered himself an enlightened Ecuadorian who was a step above those who feared the economic successes of internationals. It is an opinion that also



preserves a historical attitude toward the more indigenous or non-European heritage Ecuadorian who was considered under motivated and short-sighted.

By April 16 the ARCADIA was on its way to Guayaquil from Callao. At this point, the Press referred to Axis diplomats, consuls and citizens as totalitarians who were ordered to leave the country. Three Germans missed the train to Guayaquil from Quito. Mr. Koll was put on a plane to reach the ARCADIA. Mr. Wosatka, ex-proprietor of a restaurant in Quito, traveled by car, leaving the same day as the train, and joined his compatriots in Cajabamba. Mr. Zimmermann missed the train because he was confined in Santo Domingo de los Colorados and was not able to reach the train due to bad roads (*El Comercio, El Universo*).

For the school-age children leaving with their parents on the passenger and goods train ("el tren mixto") from Quito, the trip to the Port must have seemed quite an adventure. When the cool climate of Quito and its surrounding volcanic mountains gave way to the sub-tropical climate on the way to Guayaquil, the children must have simply sat in playful wonder. The train ride was a full twelve-hour trip through dangerous junctions like the Devil's Pass and the passengers were treated to thrilling new sights as they passed through each town in the Inter-Andean valley before the rails turned west toward the coast just south of Riobamba.

For the parents of young infants the trip to Guayaquil must have been toilsome. For the adults who, in many cases, had never left Ecuador, the ride must have been fraught with insecurity and fear. For those awaiting the ship in the port city of Guayaquil the arrival of other internationals must have been bittersweet. The sixty-five year old woman, who joined the German contingent from Quito in Guayaquil, knew she would never see the bank of the Guayas again.¹⁶ On May 5, the Ecuadorian government provided yet another list of internationals who had not registered with authorities and who would be sanctioned.

Many detainees did not return soon after the end of the war as might have been expected. For example, the Ecuadorian of German heritage who remained in



Ecuador in May of 1942 due to illness and who "disappeared" into the hands of the American government for three months before being reunited with his wife and five children aboard the GRIPSHOLM in March 1944, spent three and a half years with his family at the Crystal City, Texas internment camp. The family was interned more than two years after the end of the war. Their experience was very different from those who were exchanged for citizens of the Americas.

From the moment the Ecuadorian-born German and his Ecuadorian wife and children arrived in New Orleans they were treated as prisoners. The Ecuadorian wife shares her recollections:

The day we arrived in New Orleans, we were not fed at all. At 4:00 p.m. we were ordered off the ship. The men had been ordered off first. We were given numbers and told to follow a guard. After an hour or so we were bathed and disinfected, given clothing, and the Military Police directed us to a train.

The train was filled with the rest of our ship companions. There were 100 German Ecuadorians and many other South American German women with their children. At dusk, the train, which was a nice train, left. The children were very hungry since they had not eaten anything all day. Finally, at 10 p.m. we were allowed to go to the dining car, a very elegant one, where we were served by blacks. Afterward we went to bed. The trip to Texas took two days. They took us by bus to Crystal City.¹⁷ (The translation is from Spanish).

The experience at the Camp in Crystal City was, nevertheless, a comfortable one for the German Ecuadorian family, and they felt less like prisoners than guests:

When we arrived at Crystal City everything seemed different. It was night time and no one could see much of anything. As we



got off the bus we heard music, German music, and the people at the camp welcomed us with pastries. We were guided to an apartment where we were to stay. Everything had been prepared by German Americans. The apartments were comfortable and they had been outfitted with all the essentials. The bathrooms were communal, but they were fine.

The camp was called an Internment Camp. While there we lacked nothing. There was a supermarket, a clothing store, schools for the children, and all sorts of services. They had token money that was distributed to each family according to the number of people in the family and we bought clothing with it. The supermarket had everything in abundance.

The camp was divided. On one side were the Japanese (200) and on the other were the South Americans [Germans] (150) not counting the children.

The men had to work. The women were in charge of the household and the children. My husband had several different jobs. First, he taught at the German School, but he didn't like it very much, so he took on the custodial job at the school. From there he went to the Laundry and that is where he worked until we left. When it was harvest time, they also took the men to pick tomatoes. The men earned \$.10 per hour. They could spend that money at the canteen where they could buy alcoholic beverages, including beer.

The first Christmas we spent at Crystal City included a party at the German school. When we returned to our apartment we were surprised since the door was open and the table covered with toys for the children. There was a card that said "From the Guards" who were all Texas Germans. We were all very grateful and the children were pleased with their gifts.



The families who were expecting babies, as we were, were provided with larger homes. These homes were independent from the others and were very comfortable. There was a good hospital at the camp with Japanese, American and German doctors.

The children were happy at the camp. There were many children to play with, and they enjoyed themselves as they would have in any other situation.¹⁸ (The translation is from Spanish).

The family was never *free* to leave the camp for their home in Ecuador. In their case, it was difficult for the family to return to Ecuador since they had six children by 1947 and the cost of returning was extraordinary. The only family member allowed to work was the husband, and he earned 10 cents an hour at the camp. The cost of their return to Ecuador by plane or ship would run to one thousand dollars. Their only recourse was to wait for assistance from Ecuador or from the United States.

At times the husband and wife felt harassed by their captors, especially when the Information Office continually called them in separately:

My husband would be taken in to be questioned in the morning, and I in the afternoon. They repeatedly asked us if we wanted to leave the camp and live in the United States. But we both insisted that we wanted to return to Ecuador. Many others left the camp and took up residence in different cities in the U.S. They found jobs and worked. We refused and stayed until it was possible for us to find a way back to Ecuador. My husband insisted that since the United States [government] was responsible for bringing us to the United States, [they] should take responsibility to get us back to our homeland. It happened, just not as quickly as we had hoped.



There were no airplanes to take us home. Finally we were sent to New Orleans where we waited nearly a month before returning to Ecuador. It was a difficult time for us in New Orleans since we were in a military camp and my husband had to help in the kitchen, peeling potatoes. The day finally came to go to the airport. Nothing was in order, and it was a frightening experience. I was afraid to fly or to take my six children aboard. Once the trip got underway I felt more comfortable. It was a two day flight back to Guayaquil. From there we went directly to Manta where my parents were living.¹⁹

After the hardships of being abroad, all interviewed returnees from Europe and the United States cited additional hardships upon their return home. Most had to rely on family members to help them start anew since many of their homes had been looted and their properties confiscated. There was no work for them. They were ostracized again for "being German":

No one wanted to hire my husband. When he was finally able to take out another Ecuadorian passport, he was able to get a job with a firm in Quito that required him to work in Guayaquil. We lived there four years.²⁰

To make ends meet, many were forced to give up living in cities. They worked on isolated farms as farm hands or managers, for example. Some of the children went to work as well at bakeries, meat shops, or small farms as they were paid in kind and could thus provide for the family. Most relied on pre-departure contacts and family to survive.

Often, the father/husband or wife/mother had to take a job far away from the family. The children lived with relatives or live-in couples who cared for their needs. For many returnees it must have been a bitter-sweet time. Their trust in government, friends, authority, and perhaps even family, must have been severely tested.



Repatriated children suffered in school. Many were treated as outsiders because they had to relearn to read and write Spanish, and the youngest had to learn Spanish for the first time. Some of the children returning from the United States had a better grasp of English and German than Spanish. Their grades suffered. Friendships suffered. At the public schools there were a few angry Jewish children, and their parents, who taunted the juvenile returnees for "their role" in murdering their people, relatives or friends. The returnees' sense of linguistic, cultural, and national identity continued to be greatly challenged.

Fifty-seven years have passed since the first German Ecuadorians boarded U.S. transports as part of the American Republics' house cleaning. In those years few who returned to their Ecuadorian homeland have spoken even to each other about the experiences they endured or celebrated during their relocation. Yet, their individual recollections are surprisingly detailed and vivid. Their stories are similar in terms of shared hardships and the miracles that brought them back "home."

The recollections of those who made the journey as older children and young adults are perhaps the most fascinating since these youths, now in their sixties and seventies, had to make the greatest adjustments in terms of language, identity, and culture. They tell their own life experiences with enthusiasm and, curiously, all focus on the "miracles" that kept them from perishing.

One young German Ecuadorian was conscripted into the German army. He suffered from attacks caused by clotting. One day after an attack he was wounded and left for dead after a seizure left him motionless. He was moved to a cave by British soldiers and left with other soldiers killed in the battle. He awoke at night amongst the dead and found he could not move out from under those piled against him. He feared that if he fell asleep he might be buried alive with those whose weight pinned him down. By morning he was able to wiggle free and he surprised the British guard at the mouth of the cave. The British bandaged the young "Lazarus," and he was one of the fortunate who returned to Ecuador after being found by one of his sisters.²¹



One returnee told of being starved by her stingy caregiver who repeated the words "We are at war" and regularly fed her a few slices of peppered kohlrabi and a cup of tea without sugar.²² The repatriate children who were old enough were obligated to do the "Flicht Jahr" or "Arbeitsdienst," an unpaid year of service to the German government, during the war. Some young repatriated South and Central Americans died as soldiers at the Russian front. Most of these South American children and youth witnessed human atrocities. Many learned to "take what they needed" to survive. Many spent the first months or years after the war trying to find missing family members and return home. Some felt stronger for the experience and became very successful. A few were never again made whole.

It is a great loss that so many of these spellbinding life stories will never be recorded. Each person had a tremendous piece of lived history to tell, yet few have even passed their experiences on to their children or grandchildren. Their silence might be a bi-product of intense nationalism. We would argue, instead, that separation from family and friends during the endless repatriation processes and the hostile environments in which these people found themselves during and after the war led Latin American expatriates to silence the countless stories that will now and forever remain untold.



NOTES

¹²See http://www.netzone.com/~ajacobs/rel_int.htm. Art Jacob's web site on internment and relocation during World War II is one of the most complete records of internment connections and information on the internet.

¹³Ecuadorian newspaper reports and articles suggest that the mandate to relocate internationals came from abroad and identified the players in the relocation project as the Ecuadorian government, the U.S. government and the Spanish government who represented the interests of Axis countries. All interviewees recognized the role of the United States and the investigative agents from the U.S. who assisted the Ecuadorian officials in the relocation project. However, the proof of the role of the U. S. government is in the unpublished copy of the 1943 blacklist from Ecuador. The list is written in English and titled "The Proclaimed List of Certain Blocked Nationals" and is subtitled in Spanish "La lista negra de los Estados Unidos."

¹⁴An unsigned memo from State Department records indicates that the U.S. did not want its role in the international relocation known publicly. The memoranda are included in their entirety in Volume IV, *The World War Two Experience of German-Americans, 1671-1674* in the series *German-Americans in the World Wars*. Excerpts of the memoranda are included on the Jacobs and Fallon WWW site on the "Internment of Latin Americans of European Ancestry in the United States during and after World War II" at <http://www.netzone.com/~ajacobs/latina.htm>.

The "official" but unpublished blacklist in Ecuador (issued March 1943) listed only names, names of businesses, addresses, and a categorization system. The professions of the people who were blacklisted were not indicated on Ecuador's *Lista Negra de los Estados Unidos* (The United States' blacklist) titled the "Proclaimed List" in English at the head of the page. The Greenbrier Hotel's unpublished record of internees provides a greater amount of detail of those interned there. The record lists the ages and professions of those



interned as well as the hotel room assigned to them. The professions were determined by comparing the two lists.

¹⁵Tinajero, Fernando. *Itinerario de un acercamiento: Colegio Alemán 1917-1992*. Quito: Asociación Ecuatoriana-Alemana de Cultura y Educación. 1992. p. 94.

¹⁶Widow Polhaus from Guayaquil was 65 years old according to the Greenbrier list of internees. Carl Seegers from Guayaquil was 63. The oldest members of this particular group of the German Legation were not Ecuadorians. Anne Marie Struckmeier, a nurse, was 71 when she left Callao, Peru. Max Uhle, a teacher in Colombia, was 86 years old. The information is available in the German Legation list from the Greenbrier Hotel in White Sulphur Springs, West Virginia. The list includes the name of all internees, their place of origin, their arrival date, their position, age and room number at the hotel.

Historical information concerning the internment of "enemy aliens" at the Greenbrier is taken from the unpublished "Report of the Axis Diplomats and Nationals at the Greenbrier December 19th, 1941 to July 8th, 1942. (201 days stay)" made available to me by the Greenbrier Hotel historian, Robert S. Conte. According to Mr. Conte's letter of January 27, 1999, the original document was written by a hotel executive soon after the Japanese and German Legations were sent for repatriation. A list of repatriates is also available in the National Archives: 701.6211/1631 1/2.

Additional information concerning internment was published in the Spring 1985 *Prologue*, a Journal of the National Archives, Vol. 17, No. 1, p. 25-43. The article by Arnold M. Krammer "In Splendid Isolation: Enemy Diplomats in World War II" provides an overview of the internees' experience at the Greenbrier and reveals U.S. mandates concerning the internment of enemy aliens.

¹⁷Alcira Mejía de Contag "Recuerdos del tiempo de la segunda guerra mundial en el Ecuador," unpublished recollections, October 19, 1998. There are two recent records of life at the Crystal City internment site: Karen Lea Riley's



Ph.D. dissertation "Schools Behind Barbed Wire: A History of Schooling in the United States Department of Justice Internment Camp at Crystal City, Texas, during World War II, 1942-1946." University of Texas, Austin, 1996 and selections of Arthur Jacob's book *The Prison Called Hohenasperg: An American Boy Betrayed by his Government During World War II*. Florida: Universal Publishers, 1999. Jacob's internment site provides links to many articles, books, and web sites that deal with internment in the United States and abroad.

¹⁸ Ibid

¹⁹ Ibid

²⁰ Ibid

²¹ Rodolfo Mikette joined his sisters in Germany after surviving as a cook. They left Germany in 1947 for a difficult return trip to Ecuador. María Mikette interviewed by Jim Grabowska, June 1, 1999 in Guayaquil.

²² Many of the adults who were children or young adults during the war reveal that hunger was a major concern. Many felt betrayed by those who had the responsibility to care for them. Many had to trick others or steal to survive. The struggle for survival is a common thread in all the testimonials written or told by the adults interviewed who lived in Germany during the war as children and young adults regardless of their family's economic or social status. Those who fared best seemed to be the children who had two parents in Germany. Those who fared least well were those with one or no parents living in Germany during the war.



CHAPTER IV

ECUADORIAN EVENTS DURING THE SECOND WORLD WAR

4.1 THE INDOOR WAR IN ECUADOR

Ecuador and Peru share a long border made up largely of jungle and high mountains. As it is the case with many such borders around the world, disputes arise and conflict breaks out. In the 20th century, these Latin American neighbors fought three times (1941, 1981 and 1995) over the area known as the Cordillera del Condor region. After much bloodshed and much negotiating starting in 1995, these Andean nations signed a peace accord on October 26, 1998.

The first conflict was in 1941, and it occurred a year before the Second World War; at this time, the two countries also signed an agreement.

CAUSES OF THE CONFLICT

The territorial dispute between Ecuador and Peru originated in Spanish Colonial times. Upon independence, Ecuador joined what is now known as "Great Colombia", comprised of the territories of Venezuela, Ecuador, Colombia and Panama (then a part of Colombia). In 1829, the Treaty of Peace and Limits of Guayaquil was signed. Subsequently, in 1830, the Pedemonte-Mosquera Protocol was signed. This protocol established the Marañon-Amazon River as the border between Peru and Ecuador; however, Peru has contested these agreements. Between 1936 and 1938, representatives from Ecuador and Peru attempted to negotiate a treaty in Washington, D.C.; consequently, the Peruvians withdrew from the negotiations. A series of border clashes were fought in the years between 1938 and 1940. Peru decided to settle the matter by force after a border clash in July 1941.

On January 11, 1941, alleging that the Ecuadorians had been staging incursions and even occupation of the Peruvian territory of Zarumilla, the



President of Peru, Manuel Prado, ordered the formation of the *North Grouping*, a military unit in charge of the *Northern Operational Group*.

DESCRIPTION OF THE CONFLICT

Ecuador was unprepared to meet the July 5 Peruvian invasion. The much larger Peruvian army of 13,000 men, supported by a battalion of armor, together with artillery and air support (known as Group of the North or *agrupamiento Del Norte* commanded by General Eloy G. Ureta), moved quickly into the southern coastal province of El Oro, threatening Guayaquil. The fewer than 1,800 Ecuadorian troops in the area lacked air cover and could offer only limited resistance. The Ecuadorian president's fear of being left unprotected from his political opponents led him to keep the nation's best fighting forces in Quito. Peruvian forces also moved into the disputed Amazonian territory without significant opposition. Peruvian troops continuously attacked the nation's southern and eastern provinces until a ceasefire went into effect on July 31. After a campaign lasting only three weeks, an armistice was arranged.

The 1941 war with Ecuador was a major success for the Peruvian forces. By the end of the month, when military actions ceased, Peru held Ecuador's southernmost province of El Oro and much of the disputed eastern jungle territory that had been part of Ecuador since the 1830s.

The Ecuadorian-Peruvian war took place during 1941. The accounts as to which side fired the first shot vary considerably to this day.

- Peru's version is that Ecuadorian troops invaded Peruvian territory in the Zarumilla province, which started a battle that spread to a zone known as *Quebrada Seca*.
- Ecuador's version is that Peru took a series of incidents between border patrols as a pretext to invade Ecuador, with the intention of forcing it to sign a clear border agreement. They argue that the clear disparity of



military presence in the region between the two countries supports this version.

The first clashes occurred on Saturday, July 5, 1941.

- According to Peruvian accounts, some Ecuadorian troops from the garrison of Huaquillas, a town on the bank of the Zarumilla River which then served as the *status quo* line in the extreme left of the Ecuadorian-Peruvian border, crossed into the Peruvian border post at Aguas Verdes, a town directly in front of Huaquillas, and opened fire on a Peruvian patrol. These troops were then followed by some 200 Ecuadorian armed men, which attacked the Police station at Aguas Verdes, to which the Peruvians reacted by sending an infantry company to Aguas Verdes and repulsing the Ecuadorians back across the Zarumilla. The fighting then spread to the entire border area along the Zarumilla River. By July 6, the Peruvian aviation was conducting air-strikes against the Ecuadorian border posts along the river.
- According to Ecuadorian Col. Luis A. Rodríguez, commander of the Ecuadorian forces defending El Oro during the war, the incidents of July 5 started when an Ecuadorian border patrol found some Peruvian civilians, protected by policemen, clearing a patch of land on the Ecuadorian side of the river. Upon seeing the patrol, the Peruvian policemen opened fire, killing one soldier. This was followed by the widespread exchange of fire between troops on the opposing banks of the Zarumilla, while two Ecuadorian officers sent to Aguas Verdes to speak with the Peruvian local commanding officer were told by Peruvian authorities to go back to their lines.

Regardless, the much larger and better equipped Peruvian force of 13,000 men quickly overwhelmed the approximately 1,800 Ecuadorian covering forces, driving them back from Zarumilla and invading the Ecuadorian province of El Oro. Peru also carried out limited aerial bombing of the Ecuadorian towns of Huaquillas, Arenillas, Santa Rosa, and Machala.



The Peruvian army had at its disposal a battalion of armor made up of Czech tanks, with artillery and air support. It had also established a paratroop unit in the region and used it to great effect by seizing the Ecuadorian port city of Puerto Bolívar, on July 27, 1941, in what was the first instance in the history in either South or North America of the combat use of airborne forces.

Faced with a delicate political situation that even prompted Ecuadorian President Carlos Alberto Arroyo del Río to keep a sizable part of the Army in the capital, Quito, Ecuador promptly requested a cease-fire, which went into effect on July 31, 1941. Yet, Ecuador still carried out guerrilla attacks upon the Peruvian troops.

As a result of the war, Peru occupied almost the entire Ecuadorian coastal province of El Oro and some towns of the Andean province of Loja, besides driving the Ecuadorians back along the whole line of dispute along the Amazonian border.

Ecuador's government, led by Doctor Carlos Alberto Arroyo del Río, signed the *Protocolo de Río de Janeiro* on January 29, 1942, and Peruvian forces subsequently withdrew. Nonetheless, during the retreat several attacks were made against the Peruvian military, and a series of lives were lost during the process.

AFTERMATH

The placement of the border markers along the definitive border line indicated by the Rio Protocol was not concluded when the Ecuadorians withdrew from the demarcation commissions in 1948, arguing inconsistencies between the geographical realities on the ground and the instructions of the Protocol, a situation that according to Ecuador made it impossible to implement the Protocol until Peru agreed to negotiate a proper line in the affected area. Thus, some 78 km of the Ecuadorian-Peruvian border were left unmarked for the next fifty years, causing continuous diplomatic and military crisis between the two countries.



In 1960, Ecuadorian President José María Velasco declared that the Rio Protocol was *void*. According to the Velasco Administration, the treaty, having been signed under Peruvian military occupation of Ecuadorian soil, was illegal and contrary to Pan-American treaties that outlawed any treaty signed under the threat of force.

However, this proclamation made little international impact (the treaty was still held as valid by Peru and four more countries). Peruvian analysts have speculated that President Velasco used the *nullity thesis* in order to gather political support with a nationalistic and populist rhetoric.

In 1981, both countries again clashed briefly in the Paquisha War. Only in the aftermath of the Cenepa War of 1995 was the dispute finally settled. On October 26, 1998, representatives of Peru and Ecuador signed a definitive peace agreement in Brasilia.

CONSEQUENCES OF THE CONFLICT:

The Rio Protocol of January 1942 awarded Peru some 205,000 square kilometers of previously disputed Amazon territory. The Protocol of Peace, Friendship, and Boundaries (Rio Protocol) imposed on Ecuador acceptance of Peru's claims in the Amazonian region in return for Peruvian withdrawal from Ecuador's coastal provinces.

NOTABLE PEOPLE

Lieutenant José A. Quiñones was a Peruvian pilot during the war. On July 23, 1941, his plane, a North American NA-50, known as P-64 in USAAF, was hit while performing a low-level attack on an Ecuadorian border post on the banks of the Zarumilla River. According to traditional Peruvian accounts, Quiñones, upon being hit, flew his aircraft directly toward an Ecuadorian anti-aircraft



position and crashed against it. He was promoted posthumously to Captain and is considered today a National Hero in Peru.

Ecuadorian wartime records differ greatly from Peruvian ones as Ecuador did not have any anti-aircraft guns located in the area, and the limited artillery located at Machala was, due to a mistake by the minister of defense, useless as he ordered the wrong caliber of ammunition to be delivered to the units.

FORCES INVOLVED

According to the testimony of Col. Luis Rodríguez, the Ecuadorian forces at the disposal of the Army Border Command in El Oro (Lieutenant Colonel Octavio A. Ochoa) after the incidents of July 5 and 6 were as follows:

Forces deployed along the Zarumilla River: 3 superior officers, 33 officers, and 743 men, organized as follows:

"Cayambe" Battalion: 2 superior officers, 22 Officers, 490 soldiers.

"Montecristi" Battalion: 1 superior officer, 11 Officers, 253 soldiers.

Forces deployed in the immediate rear: 4 superior officers, 3 officers, 28 soldiers, 93 volunteers, 500 *carabineros* (a paramilitary Government force), organized as follows:

At Arenillas: 2 superior officers, 3 Officers, 14 soldiers.

At Santa Rosa: 2 superior officers, 1 Officer, 18 soldiers, plus the 93 volunteers, and the 500 *carabineros*.

As a result of the rising tensions on the border during 1939 and 1940, the Peruvian President Manuel Prado authorized in December 1940 the creation of the *Agrupamiento del Norte* (Northern Army Detachment). By July 1941, this unit was ready to begin active military operations.

Order of the Battle, *Agrupamiento Del Norte*, July 1941

Group Headquarters (Commander in Chief: Gen. Eloy G. Ureta; Chief of Staff: Lieut. Col. Miguel Monteza)



5th and 7th Cavalry Regiments

6th Artillery Group (8 105 mm guns)

Army Tank Detachment (12 Czech tanks LTP)

1st Light Infantry Division (Col. Luis Vinatea)

1st, 5th, 19th Infantry Battalions

1st Artillery Group (8 guns)

1st Engineer Company

1st Antiaircraft Section

8th Light infantry Division (Col. César Salazar)

20th Infantry Battalion

8th Artillery Group (8 guns)

8th Engineer Company

Army Detachment "*Chinchi*" (Lieut. Col. Victor Rodríguez)

33rd Infantry Battalion (2 Light Infantry companies)

Army Jungle Division (Northeast) (Gen. Antonio Silva)

Figures for total strength of the *Agrupamiento del Norte* at the beginning of offensive operations have been put at 11,500 to 13,000 men.

4.2 PRESIDENT ARROYO'S OVERTHROW

ADMINISTRATION. - Constitutional President from September 1, 1940 to May 28, 1944. He was a member of the Ecuadorian *Radical Liberal Party*.

BIOGRAPHY. - Carlos Arroyo del Rio was born in Guayaquil on November 23, 1894. His father was Manuel Maria Arroyo y Arroyo, a Colombian politician who



was exiled in Guayaquil. His mother was Aurora del Rio, a beautiful woman who lived in Guayaquil. He went to San Luis Gonzaga elementary school in Guayaquil. Then he attended San Felipe de Riobamba high school. In 1911 he decided to study Jurisprudence, and on August 3, 1914 he obtained the degree of Doctor in Jurisprudence at the University of Guayaquil. He was a professor at the same University. In 1915-1922 he occupied some public positions in charge of Jose Luis Tamayo. He also was President of the Cantonal Council, Deputy for Guayas and President of the Chamber of Deputies until 1923. In 1926 Arroyo del Rio was appointed Dean of the Faculty of Jurisprudence and in 1932 he was in charge of Guayaquil University. He also was a Senator and President of the Senate in 1935. He was a Member of the Consultative Conference of Foreign Relations.

In 1938 his supporters nominated him as candidate for the Presidency of the Republic; he won by fraud in January 1940 (is there proof that he won by fraud?). He was forced to face the war with Peru in 1941 that left a large number of deaths and the loss of more than 200.000 square kilometers of Ecuadorian territory. Because of this infamous attack and invasion, the Protocol of Rio de Janeiro had to be signed on January 29, 1942. On October 31, 1969 Carlos Arroyo del Rio died.

THE PRESIDENCY OF ARROYO DEL RIO

On September 1, 1940, doctor Carlos Arroyo del Rio took the presidential oath before the national Congress. He promised to make a government of the party, which would make the greatness of the Executive power felt, and said he would be in the Presidency not one day more, not one day less than his appointed time.

A talented man with exceptional political talent, Arroyo seemed to be the most capable person for the office of president at such a difficult international time. He wanted to make a good government and, therefore, from the beginning he abandoned his postulations of partisan government to find the collaboration of men from other political fronts.



Public education received a great deal of attention in the time of Arroyo. Many secondary schools were founded and also the University of Loja. The national Institute of Culture was founded, which afterwards was transformed into the Ecuadorian Cultural Center. The Museum of Colonial Art was created in Quito. Numerous historical buildings were restored. Along with education, the budget was carefully handled creating a balance with extra money which was not usual in Ecuador.

World problems had deeper repercussions in countries which seemed to have nothing to do with the struggles. Arroyo had to confront the problem of American solidarity against what was then considered a common enemy: the countries of the Rome-Berlin Axis. Little by little Ecuador was drawn into the war with the cooperation of raw material for the defense of the hemisphere and in the participation in a solid Pan-American movement.

During these same days, foregoing what was said and done for the union, Peru attacked Ecuador on the South where Peru had forces much superior to the weak Ecuadorian frontier troops, and there was no time to improve these forces. More than 30,000 men occupied the Province of El Oro and blocked the port of Guayaquil, obliging Ecuador to capitulate in view of the prevailing circumstances.

During these months the United States needed a continental declaration, united and strong, made up of all the American States through their respective chancellors for which there would have to be a Conference of Chancellors. The city of Rio de Janeiro was chosen as the seat of such a conference. Ecuador was present with the other American countries. Not only was the conference interested in solidarity, but it also opened up other areas for consideration. In the end the Ecuadorian problem was considered, and it seems that nobody considered it to be a case in which precisely everything that had been discussed and approved by the solemn Conference was brought to play. It was decided that Peru was in the right. A protocol was written in which American peace, solidarity, and fraternity took away from Ecuador a large part of its territory.



Ecuador recognized everything that this international dictatorship imposed upon it with unequal nobility. But the Ecuadorian people did not refrain from asking its government for an explanation. For this reason, scarcely had the noise quieted down than a protest was raised against Arroyo and his cabinet, especially against the Chancellor who was made responsible for the whole event: the war, the disaster, and the Protocol of Rio.

From the moment in which the document of the Protocol was signed, Arroyo ceased to be President (the President?) for good. His office was by all appearances legal, shielded by extraordinary forces and by others which were invented by him (what do you mean?). With these forces, he was able to maintain himself in power until the end of May 1944, after which his presidency ended as the result of military and civil subversion in Guayaquil, seconded by many cities of the Republic.

PRESIDENT'S ARROYO OVERTHROW

In the nineteenth and twentieth centuries Ecuador was divided between the largely Indian highlands centering on the national capital, Quito, and the coastal area, focused on the port city of Guayaquil. Economic, social, and political rivalry between these two parts of the republic was a major element in the country's history.

Until the middle of the twentieth century, Ecuador remained one of the most backward countries in Latin America. The economy of the country did not improve and the society remained resistant to change.

So in 1942, Vincent Lombardo Toledo, president of the Conference of Latin American Laborers (*Trabajadores de America Latina*), visited Ecuador and was welcomed by the government, the press, and the unions. He addressed a public meeting in company with President Arroyo del Rio, and 20,000 people heard him urge all-out support for the Allied war effort.

The visit of Lombardo Toledo to Ecuador gave a considerable impulse to the formation of a national central labor organization. Some meetings were



scheduled in Guayaquil and Quito and some pro-government delegates organized a National Laborer Committee of Ecuador (*Comite Nacional de Trabajadores Del Ecuador*), with the blessings of the Arroyo del Rio government.

The first meeting of the *Comite Nacional de Trabajadores* was held in August 1943. It considered two questions. First, it began to lay plans for the overthrow of President Carlos Arroyo del Rio. In the second place, it discussed its principal task of bringing together the workers' organizations in a national confederation; this undertaking had success, establishing a truce between the trade unions and President Arroyo del Rio's government.

However, during the second meeting of the *Comite Nacional de Trabajadores*, the final touches were put on plans to overthrow the president. There was one serious stumbling block in the way of these plans: the position that U.S. troops, who were in the country under wartime accords, would take in case there was an uprising against the government. One member of the Revolutionary Committee was commissioned to contact the U.S. authorities, and after a few days, the committee received word that U.S. troops would stay in their barracks and take no part on one side or the other. It was only after this word had been received that the coup against Arroyo del Rio was carried out.

THE 1944 GLORIOUS MAY REVOLUTION

Arroyo Del Rio had won the 1940 election among charges of electoral fraud. The credibility of Arroyo's government suffered after losing the war with Peru in 1941 and half of Ecuador's territory in the subsequent Rio Protocol. He was forced to resign but he did not; rather he repressed the discontent of the people in order to complete the mandate. Not one day more, not one day less.

In November 1942, Arroyo accepted a trip to the United States, Mexico, Venezuela, and Colombia. After this trip, he decided to transfer military bases of the United States to the Santa Elena peninsula and the Galapagos Islands after the breaking of diplomatic relations with the Axis powers; this decision caused displeasure in the country.



The Glorious May Revolution represented a significant break in the political history of the Ecuadorian republic and an end to the *hegemony* that liberals had enjoyed over the country since Eloy Alfaro's 1895 Liberal Revolution.

On May 28, 1944, a coalition of workers, students, Indians, peasants, women, and young military officers joined forces in Ecuador's "Glorious May Revolution" to overthrow the increasingly unpopular presidency of Carlos Arroyo del Rio. With a declining economic situation and a growing fear that Arroyo del Rio would not respect the outcome of the upcoming June elections, popular pressure grew for political change.

The 1944 revolution began at 10 p.m. on the evening of May 28 with the military garrison in the coastal port city of Guayaquil revolting against Carlos Arroyo del Rio's government. Until 7 a.m. the next morning, dissidents attacked and burned the gendarme's headquarters (*cuartel de carabineros* - hated by the people because of the mistreatment and torture the gendarmes practiced against any suspicious person who did not obey the president's rules), the barracks which housed the repressive police force that defended oligarchic interest and formed Arroyo del Rio's main base support. The army, which was a strong rival of the *carabineros*, claimed the support of all the people, principally students, workers, and intellectuals, and declared that it had rebelled to put an end to the hateful tyranny of traitors. The military denied that it desired to take over the government. Rather, power will be placed in the hands of civilians who will guarantee an immediate return to normality.

The next morning, masses of people flooded the streets to demand deep-seated reforms that would address their grievances. It was a time of euphoric optimism which seemed to signal the emergence of new social relations and the end of exclusionary state structures. Popular uprisings in Guayaquil spread the following morning to the highland towns of Quito, Cuenca, and Riobamba, resulting in the deaths of several hundred people including some *carbineros* such as Rufo Lago who was known for his cruel tortures and in Riobamba, Carlos Paredes, Major of the *Carabineros* who was tortured and intensely hit before his death. The military declined to come to the aid of the embattled



government, refusing to use repression to defend the interests of the oligarchy. Some lower-level officers and soldiers even provided overt support to the revolutionary movement. With the elimination of Arroyo del Rio's repressive *carabinero* police forces, students organized into *Guardias Civicas Urbanas* that patrolled the streets but reported no problems. In Quito, protestors circled governmental buildings, paralyzing their operations. Street demonstrations congregated on the Plaza de la Independencia where people sang the national anthem, cheered populist leader Jose Maria Velasco Ibarra, and speakers made impassioned calls for social change.

By the evening of the 29th about half Quito's population was on the streets in support of the uprising. Women's committees played an important role in these protests; including helping organize a human enclosure around the Government Place that gained the surrender of the men stationed there. Having lost all of his support, Arroyo del Rio resigned from the presidency on May 31 and sought refuge in the Colombian Embassy. The military leaders who participated in the uprising asserted that "we, the men of the people, captured the government, and we set up a popular regime, the most democratic in this America."²³ Writer, feminist, and leftist leader Nela Martinez assumed the role of Minister of Government in the transitory government. In the countryside, Indians and peasants joined the uprisings. Dolores Cacuango led Indian forces in an attack on the army barracks in the northern highland town of Cayambe.

After the overthrowing of Arroyo del Rio, all Ecuadorians, men, women, workers, soldiers, and students momentarily unified forces, but it became impossible to solidify these diverse forces into a common front to transform the country.

During the May Revolution populists gained control; however, after a brief period of euphoria, which appeared to be ushering in a new period of social relations with optimistic expectations of increased popular participation in political power, the country's elite reestablished their control. Although women, Indians, and lower classes had played a significant role in this political transformation, after the victory they were soon forgotten, marginalized, and



excluded from participation in government affairs. Meanwhile, the economic situation in the country continued to decline.

The fall of Arroyo del Rio led the *Alianza Democratica Ecuatoriana* (ADE, Ecuadorian Democratic Alliance) to take power. The ADE established provisional ruling *juntas* in Guayaquil and Quito that would govern until its presidential champion and populist leader Jose Maria Velasco Ibarra could return to the country.

(At the end of his first year in the government Velasco Ibarra was deposed by the army and forced into exile to Colombia because he had assumed dictatorial powers imprisoning opposition leaders and censoring the press.)

On June 1, Jose Maria Velasco Ibarra was proclaimed Supreme Chief of the Republic and on June 6, the *Cuartel de Carabineros* was changed in *Guardia Civil Nacional*.

Velasco Ibarra came to power with wide and diverse support which crossed all social classes, political persuasions, and sectors of society. This was a period of high expectations for deep changes. Women, children, Indians, and others from all stations in life met and gave Velasco Ibarra a very warm welcome.

THE 1944-1945 CONSTITUENT ASSEMBLY

On July 23, 1944, the Ecuadorian electorate picked delegates for the constituent assembly which would draft a new constitution for the country. Notably absent from this assembly was the direct participation of Indians, women, and other members of marginalized sectors that had played leading roles in the Glorious May Revolution. All of the delegates who gathered in Quito to draft the constitution were men from Ecuador's privileged elite, white-mestizo class. Since the Indians were not citizens, the government denied them access to the national congress.

²³ <http://www2.truman.edu/~marc/seminar/becker.html>



The assembly convened on August 10 (the anniversary of Ecuador independence from Spain), named Velasco Ibarra president of the Republic, and began to work on a new constitution to govern the country. However, Velasco Ibarra opposed the restrictions on executive power as limiting the sovereignty of the people. These divisions in the constituent assembly were also played out in street battles. Velasco realized that the Glorious May Revolution appeared not to have solved any of the country's problems.

Jose Maria Velasco Ibarra once observed that Ecuador was a very difficult country to govern. Ecuador had also been known as a country with highly unstable governments and frequent changes in chief executives and ministerial posts.

Indigenous peoples and labor movements had become the vanguard of the citizenship struggle. This political context led to a situation of partial democracy which continued to exclude the rural majority from the full exercise of their citizenship rights. Only through popular mobilizations would it be possible to close the gap between the rhetoric and reality of citizenship, between the promise and the practice of democratic rights. Without a doubt, citizenship had always been highly exclusionary in Ecuador, and changes had come only as a result of fierce popular struggles.

4.3 ECUADOR'S PARTICIPATION IN THE SECOND WORLD WAR

The participants in World War II were those who either participated directly in or were affected by any of the events of World War II.

World War II was primarily fought between two large military alliances, the Axis and the Allies powers. The Axis powers were a group of countries led by Nazi Germany, the Kingdom of Italy and the Empire of Japan. They were considered the aggressors of the conflict. The Allies became involved in Second World War either because they had been invaded or were threatened with invasion by the Axis or because they were concerned that the Axis powers would come to



control the world. The Allies led by the United Kingdom and until its defeat, France, were joined in the European theater by the Soviet Union in June 1941 and by the United States in December 1941. In the Asia-Pacific Theater, the Allies were led by the Republic of China.

SECURING THE FRONTIER

Since 1939, territorial problems between Ecuador and Peru had become more serious. Peru joined forces with the Axis powers (Germany, Italy, and Japan) since in Hitler's plans was the conquest of Ecuador for Peru. In 1941 President Roosevelt revealed Peru's intentions of attacking Ecuador's frontier. Immediately, Ecuador decided to break diplomatic relations with the Axis powers.

When Peru invaded Ecuador, the world was living the Second World War and Japan had decided to attack Pearl Harbor on December 07, 1941. Because of this invasion, the United States asked some South American nations for help, Ecuador being one of them. The United States declared war on Japan immediately after the attack at Pearl Harbor.

The gathering war clouds in Europe and Asia presented both challenges and opportunities to Ecuador. The greatest challenge was how to preserve the sovereignty of the country and its way of life in the face of the overwhelming military power of the Axis (Germany, Italy, and Japan) and the Allies (France and Great Britain, later joined by the Soviet Union and the United States). At first, it would appear that Ecuador was of little strategic importance to the belligerents, but such was not the case. Ecuador's location, in close proximity to the Panama Canal, a strategic waterway whose control by the United States gave the Allies a decided advantage by providing for the rapid deployment of naval forces and war material around the globe, meant that it could not avoid some involvement in World War II, especially in the context of the global reach provided by modern aircraft and submarines.

The security challenge was all the more daunting in light of the small Ecuadorian defense forces, whose weaponry was woefully obsolete. Therefore,



the modernization of its armed forces was Ecuador's immediate objective. Nevertheless, Ecuador lacked the resources to build forces that would be sufficient to deter a direct attack on its territory and stem any internal threats.

Ecuador employed skillful diplomacy to avoid direct involvement in the war but with limited success. Ultimately, Ecuador realized that it needed the protection of a Great Power and that the only viable option was the United States. The challenge was to accept U.S. protection while at the same time maintaining sovereignty and achieving its own objectives, which were not necessarily identical to those of the United States.

Another security problem for Ecuador was posed by the small but influential German population within its borders. In Ecuador, Germans controlled an important airline, Sociedad Ecuatoriana de Transportes Aereos (SETA, Ecuadorian Air Transport Company), that was of more than commercial value; also, there were active German schools, clubs, and commercial enterprises. The host country did not view this German population and its activities with any particular concern, but the United States did. Ecuador faced increasing pressure from the United States to nationalize the German airline companies and expel the German pilots, administrators, and other employees. Later, the United States expanded its anti-German program to include the blacklisting of Axis and individuals and ultimately the internment of many of the German expatriates in Ecuador in the United States.

In addition to national security, there were economic problems resulting from World War II that Ecuador had to confront. The loss of some of the European markets was particularly troublesome. Here the challenge was to minimize the disruption of Ecuador's economies and to maintain some control over the price of its exports when the United States became the primary market. The expanding commercial power and influence of the United States became evident when the war removed Germany as an alternative lender for Ecuador.

However, World War II also provided Ecuador with opportunities. Modernization was a top priority, and through adroit bargaining over the use of its territory, war



materials, and international political support, Ecuador obtained technical expertise and funding to improve its society. On the other hand, the problem of German influence was turned into an advantage as airlines were expropriated and reorganized as Ecuadorian companies. Despite the protestations made against the “Proclaimed List,” the blacklist of Axis owned businesses, the nation took advantage of this situation to eliminate competition from foreign-owned firms and seize their assets. Similarly, the Proclaimed List was also used as justification to intern troublesome or annoying local community leaders.

ECUADOR

Because of its strategic location, there was no doubt that Ecuador would be impacted by World War II. Situated on the westernmost point of South America between Peru to the South and east and Colombia to the north, Ecuador also included the famous Galapagos Islands. The Galapagos, which are situated in the Pacific approximately one thousand miles west of the Panama Canal, offered an excellent location for the forward defense of the canal or conversely a potential staging area for an attack on it. U.S. war planners were concerned that Germany might launch a bombing attack on the canal from a secret base in the Amazon region. The United States also was concerned about an attack against the Panama Canal by Japan, either by a carrier task force or by planes launched from the Galapagos. (Indeed, Japan did have plans to destroy the canal through the use of an innovative weapons system, a bomber launched from a submarine.) Although not as well documented, apparently Germany hoped to gain influence in Ecuador by developing commercial airline enterprises and nurturing an intelligence network via German immigrants who resided primarily in Quito.

However, Ecuador’s security concerns in 1939-1941 were not focused on Germany, Japan, or the United States but were turned toward Peru. Ecuador and Peru had long been in territorial dispute over a vast region of the one-remote upper Amazonian basin. The area in question was a triangular section east of the Andes referred to by Ecuadorians as the Oriente and bounded on the south by the Marañón and Amazon rivers and on the north and east by the



Putumayo. Attempts to resolve the dispute by bilateral negotiations since 1830 had reached no resolution.

On July 5, 1941, hostilities between the neighboring countries began near towns of Huaquillas and Charcas on the Zarumilla River. On July 22, Peru opened a major offensive, and the Ecuadorians, outnumbered four to one and with no armor or air support, were quickly overwhelmed. By July 25, a relentless Peruvian air attack, carried out by Italian supplied fighters and bombers, destroyed the Ecuadorian resistance. The Peruvian Army poured into Ecuador's El Oro province, while its navy blockaded Guayaquil and shelled the coastal town of Puerto Bolivar. On July 31, Ecuador accepted Peru's terms for a cease-fire. As Ecuador's foreign minister, Dr. Julio Tobar Donoso, wrote, "Disarmed and annihilated, Ecuador resigned itself to this measure which constituted the amputation of its sovereignty."²⁴

The Ecuador-Peru War threatened to break hemispheric solidarity that had been so carefully crafted at the Havana and Panama Conferences. Ecuador was confronted not only with the loss of the disputed area but also with the loss of territory that was clearly Ecuadorian. Ecuador wanted the occupation to end, but had no leverage other than diplomacy.

Ecuador's situation remained tenuous when the United States entered World War II. Sumner Welles, the U.S. Under Secretary of State, was determined to present a united hemispheric front against the Axis and sought to quickly resolve the Ecuador question at the January 1942 meeting of foreign ministers in Rio de Janeiro. Welles found support for this initiative from Brazil's foreign minister, Oswaldo Aranha.

²⁴<http://books.google.com.ec/books?id=latinamericaduringworldwarII>



Welles let Aranha take the lead in convincing Ecuador that its only alternative was to relinquish its land claim to the disputed territory in exchange for a withdrawal of Peruvian troops from its soil. Aranha told the Ecuadorian foreign minister: “A country that doesn’t have borders is like a man without skin. If you do not settle now, Peru will continue the invasion. It is not possible to have preliminary terms; it is better to loss a limb than the whole body.”²⁵ Realizing that neither the United States, Argentina, Brazil, nor Chile would intervene on its behalf, Ecuador signed the Protocol of Peace, Friendship, and Boundaries, which became simply known as the Rio Protocol.

ECUADOR’S COLLABORATION

The Rio Protocol was clearly the most significant outcome of World War II for Ecuador. Nevertheless, the protocol did not deter Ecuador from cooperating with the United States throughout World War II. Ecuadorian collaboration with the Allies became an important element during this struggle. Ecuador granted the United States base rights in the Galapagos Islands and Salinas.

The United States constructed a naval base on one of the Galapagos Islands, manned until the end of World War II when it was turned over to Ecuador. The FAE later took over the air base at Salinas which the United States had also manned during the war. Agreements signed in 1940 and 1944 also provided for the transfer of American military equipment into Ecuador.

Due to the diversity of Ecuador’s lands, its products were also diverse and because of that Ecuador could intensify the production of the most necessary materials for the war.

Coffee and fruit crops increased; however, balsa wood, cocoa, rice, and rubber, were primordial products during the war.

Ecuador provided “balsa” wood for modern bombing aircraft called “mosquito” which considerably increased the range of the diurnal bombers over allied Germany. The production of balsa increased considerably during the war.

²⁵ <http://books.google.com.ec/books?id=latinamericaduringworldwarII>



This very light weight wood was granted boarding priority in relation to other Ecuadorian products and because of its importance; it also was used to built raft lifeboats.

The increase of rice production also helped to increase the Ecuadorian economy during World War II. In 1942 the rice harvests exceed previous years since rice transportation from Indochina and Birmania had been interrupted because of the war.

When the high demand of necessary products for the war arrived, production increased immediately and the exportations of Ecuadorian rubber reached the highest point ever seen before. On July 20, 1942, the country signed a rubber treaty with the United States in which this country would buy all the rubber that Ecuador produced during five years. In addition, many unemployed people could have a stable job in rubber plantations.

Another important and useful product was cocoa. The soldiers in all parts of the world ate cocoa which became an important part of their rations. Besides, the bark from "*cinchona*" trees gave "*quinine*," which helped to defend the allied soldiers from malaria in the tropical regions; their vegetables oils, staples, and tagua nuts, were very helpful against the Axis war.

On the other hand, it is important to mention the American investments made in Ecuador, which considerably enriched Ecuador. In exchange for Ecuador's participation and collaboration with the Allies, in April 1942 the United States delivered to Ecuador weaponry to the sum of \$17 million. In 1943, the USA invested \$10, 8 million into the country's economy; in 1945 the American investments reached \$14 million.

The Second World War represented for the Ecuadorian economy the end of the crisis and a new era of relative expansion. Due to the war, Ecuador exported products of indispensable consumption for the belligerent countries. Also, because of the war, commercial relations between the United States and Asian countries finished, which helped Ecuador to sell its products.



So, among the American nations, Ecuador was considered a useful country based on its contribution toward the Axis defeat.



CHAPTER V

THE WORLD AFTER THE SECOND WORLD WAR

5.1 A NEW WORLD ORDER

After the end of the Second World War, some conferences were carried out in order to reconstruct the world order. This new world order relied on the cooperation of the American nations in the Western Hemisphere.

Immediately following the Japanese attack on Pearl Harbor on December 7, 1941, planners in the U.S. Department of State began thinking about policy alternatives and recommendations for Secretary of State Cordell Hull and President Franklin D. Roosevelt. Uppermost in their minds was the vision of postwar stability achieved through an international collective security agency and the spread of the American dream of liberal capitalism and free trade throughout the world. Peace and prosperity became the main purpose of the policymaker, Sumner Welles. Yet rapidly changing military, diplomatic, strategic, and economic conditions in the midst of global war left these foreign-policy planners with a decidedly mixed record at the end of World War II.

In August of 1941, less than four months before the attack on Pearl Harbor, Sumner Welles stood at the pinnacle of a remarkable diplomatic career. He had just helped draft the Atlantic Charter, which he believed would define America's impending entry into the war as a crusade for a new world order to replace militarism, colonialism, spheres of influence, and power politics. He delivered a stirring address before hundreds of Washington dignitaries, offering a thorough exposition of America's war aims, and pledging the United States' support for the restoration of liberty to those nations subjugated in the war.

Welles was a formidable force in wartime Washington and some important people predicted that his views would dominate America's effort to win the peace. His views carried great weight, both abroad and at home with Congress. He was one of the most important officials in the wartime administration, a man whose vision of the role the U.S. would play on the global stage made him a



central figure in America's wartime transformation from a major power to a superpower.

More important than his diplomatic efforts prior to the U.S. entry into the war was his work toward shaping a vision of the postwar order. Welles feared that the other world powers might achieve a settlement that would be contrary to U.S. interests. Thus, even before the United States entered the war, he emerged as the administration's strongest voice advocating a U.S.-led international order founded upon a new world organization. Prior to the attack on Pearl Harbor, he publicly called for the United States to lead the way toward an internationalist future where the world's markets would be free, trade barriers nonexistent, and colonialism and economic nationalism unnecessary.

Welles wished to bring about a new world order based upon free markets and republican institutions, buttressed by American military power. While heading the State Department's committees for postwar planning, which were entrusted with the task of designing the foundations of the postwar order, he transmuted these goals and aims into a plan of action. He envisioned how trade and the distribution of aid in the postwar era would be essential to world prosperity, especially for America. He became sharply attuned to the needs of the national economy, which he believed was destined to dominate the global marketplace, and he assumed that American prosperity in the postwar era would depend upon foreign markets and a world made safe for democracy and capitalism. He oversaw plans to design the United Nations and advocated a "soft peace" toward the defeated Axis powers, in the hope that they would reemerge as part of his desired new order. He aimed to avoid simply reviving the old League of Nations by instead building the new world organization upon a series of smaller regional leagues and by providing it with a strong military capability and an extensive system of trusteeships for colonial areas which would differ from the old scheme of mandates.

In the autumn of 1939, with the war in Europe only in its first few weeks, Sumner Welles already had his mind focused on planning the peace that would one day follow. By embarking upon postwar planning as early as 1939, Welles



sought to avoid the confusion that had characterized the effort a generation ago. Several officials, such as Cordell Hull, feared that premature discussion of postwar planning would immediately resurrect controversies that had surrounded the League of Nations debate. Welles felt otherwise, and sought a way for postwar planning to commence without the interference of Hull.

Welles reached outside the State Department for preliminary work on postwar planning. He asked Hamilton Fish Armstrong, the director of the Council on Foreign Relations, to prepare for him a number of detailed studies on postwar planning. Welles worked closely with Armstrong who began to gather allies from within the State Department. According to Welles and planners such as Harley Notter, the planning committees would seek to survey the basic principles which should underlie a desirable world order to be evolved after the termination of present hostilities, with primary reference to the best interests of the United States.

The efforts of Welles's advisory committees would meaningfully influence U.S. policy both during and after the war, but the first nine months of 1941 were a period of uncertainty and doubt for the advocates of postwar planning. He urged the resumption of more detailed planning, but the day-to-day realities of the war and other political controversies made further progress difficult. However, Welles and the planners often felt great uneasiness about the level of public support for their postwar plans. Welles thus aimed to convince the American people that only through active participation in an international organization could they avoid another disaster like the current war.

POSTWAR PLANNING

Under Welles's leadership, the postwar planners initially sought to investigate how the peace could be reconciled with America's war aims. But they soon exceeded that mandate, moving from broad discussions of postwar matters to more specific investigations of the postwar status of particular powers. They consequently expanded their investigations to almost every corner of the globe. Over the course of the eighteen months between January 1942 and July 1943,



the advisory committees shaped U.S. policy in numerous areas. In addition to creating a new international organization they investigated and made recommendations for Washington's relations with the exile governments, planned for the postwar reconstruction of Germany, Italy, and Japan, charted the postwar future of China, and attempted to stabilize relations between Moscow and Washington. They left almost no part of the world, no continent, no nation, unexamined, and when Welles resigned in September 1943, the foundations of the postwar order America would pursue were already in place.

The discussions in Welles's subcommittees took place in an open and exploratory atmosphere. Yet this approach created a number of problems. Welles wanted the committees to reach agreements rapidly, but his open-ended methods ensured that while the planners conducted their survey of the world, America's vital interests continued to expand to areas not previously considered relevant to U.S. security. During the lifespan of the committees, one of the most common and successful arguments followed the line that anything threatening the future peace of the world—anywhere—also threatened America's vital interests. So, Welles and his fellow planners would succeed in expanding the concept of U.S. vital interests to remote areas of the Far East, Africa, the Near East, and Eastern Europe.

As the planners surveyed the world situation, it soon became clear that a dramatic change had occurred in their view of the world, and their definition of America's vital interests expanded accordingly. This transformed understanding of the world on the part of the planners presumed that the U.S. would intrude in the internal affairs of other nations and would go to great lengths to produce outcomes beneficial to U.S. interests. Immediately, Welles asked the committees begin compiling lists of potential leaders of other nations who would be agreeable to American interests in the postwar period. The United States might then actively seek to promote these officials within their native governments. Welles suggested the other nations to select "good men" who would advice in all decisions.



However, the planners also had aims that went beyond the political order. Welles also took into account the creation of a new economic order in the postwar world. He hinted that after the war the United States would transform itself from an arsenal of democracy supplying the world's military needs into the workshop of democracy providing the aid and materiel necessary for global reconstruction.

He sought to exert U.S. influence in other ways as well, such as through the manipulation of exile movements. He sought to influence the future course of these occupied countries and use his relations with exile movements to shape their postwar governments. He realized that the United States had much to gain through its dealings with exiles and expatriates. The Allies benefited from the collaboration of various national armed forces, some of which, such as the exiled Poles, constituted a movement of some significance. They took advantage of several resistance movements, such as those in the Philippines, France, Burma, and Yugoslavia, which often included vast networks of intelligence agents. They gained access to millions of tons of valuable merchant shipping, mostly Dutch, Norwegian, Greek, and Yugoslav. The Allies also benefited from the continued existence of the many exile governments functioning in Allied territory, thus enabling the Allied propaganda effort to better combat Axis political warfare.

In the case of France, the French exiles constituted what was perhaps the most vigorous movement of all. However, it would have little role in Welles's postwar designs, and he welcomed the possibility that the weakening of France would lead to a further reduction of European influence around the world. He wanted to see France disarmed and removed from the ranks of the great powers at the end of the war. He saw France as one of the largest countries in Europe and the second largest colonial empire in the world, would also be a significant factor in any effort at European (or even global) reconstruction at the end of the war. He desired to see France reborn after the war as an effective engine of European economic reconstruction, but without the military power and pretensions to imperial splendor it had possessed prior to 1940. He



acknowledged that European recovery absolutely required a strong France. But he also feared that a perpetuation of France's quest for national and imperial glory would merely perpetuate the instability at the heart of Europe.

France led by General Charles de Gaulle represented a threat to American goals for a diminished postwar France because he did not know if the French government would be amenable to the implementation of certain reforms desired by Washington, such as disarmament and a commitment to trusteeship for French colonial possessions. So, Welles believed that only adherence to the Four Freedoms could ensure a stable, peaceful, and legitimate postwar order in France. All governments, he argued, including the French, must give their peoples such rights and apply them. He reminded his fellow planners that the United States should not wait for events to happen in places like France, but should instead adroitly exploit opportunities and take the lead in shaping the postwar world. France and the French colonial empire might prove to be ideal models for America to demonstrate its resolve in creating a new world order.

Welles began to distrust de Gaulle's attitude and his suspicion of de Gaulle were confirmed by the French diplomat Alexis Léger, who held the senior civil service post of secretary general of the French foreign ministry. He warned Welles that de Gaulle and his movement sought communist support and that the general desired closer relations with Moscow as a means of escaping Anglo-American domination. He also told that de Gaulle remained totally opposed to any type of international cooperation or world organization.

Welles suggested that the United Nations, and not de Gaulle, should draft a new constitution for France in order to prevent communists from gaining power in France. The planners proposed that the United Nations be prepared to impose local and national administration in a liberated France. However, Welles feared that it would be difficult because he suspected that de Gaulle was determined to manipulate future elections in a liberated France.

Relations between the U.S. and the Free French continued to deteriorate. When Welles scheduled the initial meeting between the president and Free French



representatives for early November 1942, the French envoys inexplicably failed to appear and after four hours the meeting was canceled.

American plans for France's diminution continued apace. Throughout the fall and winter of 1942, Welles and his planners resumed the debate over whether France should be completely disarmed at the end of the war. On the one hand, if Germany were disarmed there would be no good reason for the rearmament of France. Welles and the other planners thought the enforced disarmament of the two major powers of continental Europe would promote greater continental union.

At the end of 1942, U.S. opposition to de Gaulle intensified. In December, Welles and the planners reasserted that the United States should oppose recognition of General de Gaulle as the head of the French Government on the grounds that important French groups have failed to support General de Gaulle and that it is for the French people themselves to determine the character and the political head of the future French Government. In addition, in the fall of 1942, Washington had excluded de Gaulle from participating in the planning and execution of Operation Torch and the Anglo-American invasion of North Africa.

The Americans continued to see de Gaulle as a British puppet. The British had protested in December 1941 when Welles deliberately omitted the Free French from the United Nations Declaration. A few months later, the British minister in Washington, Sir Ronald Campbell, warned the Foreign Office that Washington remained steadfastly opposed to the Free French and that Welles believed de Gaulle to be a "fascist." The British were somewhat alarmed by Welles's views, they continued to think it essential that France be given a place among the great powers, if only because without a rejuvenated France at the center of Europe, the challenge of creating a sound and free postwar order would prove more difficult.

Throughout the early years of the war, Welles and other postwar planners welcomed the prospect that France, Germany, and even Britain would emerge



from the war weaker than ever before, thus giving Washington an unprecedented opportunity to reorder European affairs.

Welles often sought throughout the war to promote U.S. interests at the expense of Britain and the British Empire, which he saw as a potential source of postwar instability. As in the case of France, Welles and many of the other planners saw Britain as a potential obstacle to U.S. aims in the postwar world because he and his colleagues often saw Britain as a greater threat to their world aims. So, Welles frequently sought to cultivate relations with China and the USSR which might serve as effective counterweights to British aims. He suspected the British only sought to revive France as a great power so that it could serve as a "stalking horse" for British aims on the continent.

Welles's vision of an American-led new world order depended upon the steady diminution of Great Britain as a world power. Welles believed the war had created an unstable and fragile environment on the British home front. He noted that the British had been able to carry on the war only with large amounts of assistance from elsewhere, particularly the United States. The British government had been preoccupied with the prosecution of the war and had not undertaken extensive and specific planning for the postwar world on the same scale as had the Americans, so Britain wanted to need powerful allies like the United States in order to maintain itself as a great power after the war.

Welles worried that the British would seek to reestablish the balance of power in Europe by dividing the continent between a western bloc, allied to Britain, and an eastern bloc, dominated by the Soviet Union. He feared that British officials, particularly Churchill, desired a partitioned Germany that would be divided between British and Soviet spheres. Furthermore, Welles warned the planners that, if the past offered any hint of a pattern, Churchill's aims would ultimately prevail and, while the planners might object to such views, there was very little they could do to change that result in the short term.

In the last years of the war Welles also led the planners to take on the daunting task of fashioning the blueprints for a reconstructed postwar Germany. One of



the most crucial questions facing the planners was whether they could reconstruct Germany in a way that would finally curb its expansionist ambitions. Welles had very definite views on the postwar future of Germany. He felt that Germany would have to be completely reconstructed and reconfigured before it could be allowed membership in his anticipated "new European order," where it would eventually come to play a crucial role in European economic integration. He assumed that reducing Germany to its status when it was less centralized would provide Europe with greater postwar stability.

Initially the subcommittee discussed the possibility of dismembering Germany into several states. Welles's "new European order" required continental harmony, and he worried that a strong and centralized postwar Germany would make it more difficult to unite Europe on a continental scale. He began to argue that a partition might be inadvisable. Welles suggested that the committee detach Austria from Germany in order to focus solely on Germany. Welles and his planners debated the reconstruction of a postwar Germany in exhausting detail. Welles sought to organize an anti-Hitler exile movement that could be used for psychological warfare against Germany. Several months of discussion of the German problem had further defined the views of the planners. In the fall of 1942, they recommended to the president that unconditional surrender should be demanded of Germany. The Nazi regime in Berlin would have to be completely overthrown and United Nations forces would occupy and disarm Germany at the end of the war. The subcommittee also made a number of political and territorial proposals designed to ensure that Germany would never again become a threat to world peace. But they also endorsed proposals for a "soft peace," stressing that the German people should be assured of a prosperous and peaceful future, and that any settlement should avoid harsh terms. Welles also remained concerned about the possibility of postwar economic chaos in Germany as a result of the mass movement of war refugees that would follow her defeat. However, throughout the war, Welles had argued that a German economic revival would be essential to the postwar economic health of Europe. He foresaw that an economically powerful Germany would be necessary to serve as the engine of European reconstruction, and his support



for a "soft peace" eventually carried the day, as did his plan for a massive program of postwar reconstruction for the defeated Axis powers.

As in the case of France, Germany, Italy, Soviet Union, Tokyo, Japan, etc, also were in the projects of Welles. But all of those countries had to choose "good men," to aid in the reconstruction of a new world order which would have the United States as leader.

Welles's vision of a new order was U.S. participation in a world organization. Throughout the Second World War, Welles sought nothing less than a complete restructuring of international relations. In numerous speeches he expressed his view of the war's potential to bring about a new world order, and he pursued this vision through the postwar planning committees. He anticipated a huge expansion of American interests around the world. He led to a reflexive impulse to project American interests broadly, no matter the consequences, and fueled the belief that the smallest shifts or changes in the global balance of power could destabilize U.S. security.

Welles also desired to restructure the world economy. He anticipated that at the end of the war America would be positioned to expand its economic reach all over the world. He understood that, while much of the rest of the world would struggle to rebuild after the war, the United States would control a huge share of the global market. He thus anticipated and proposed an American effort to reconstruct not only the economies of the weakened Allied and neutral nations, but also those of the defeated Axis powers. In addition, he thought the reconstruction of the world would benefit the United States by providing new markets, raw materials, and potential allies, and would also enable Washington to take the lead in creating a new postwar economic order dominated by the United States.

Welles also led the American effort to guide the postwar course of the other great powers. He argued that the Axis powers should not be so crippled as to prevent their return to the community of nations after the war. They would instead be reconstructed so as to lend support to U.S. interests in the postwar



era. Welles's wartime vision also included the weakening and eventual destruction of imperial systems abroad and the ultimate granting of independence and self-rule to the European colonies. During the war, American interests underwent a vast expansion. Numerous colonial areas that had been previously ignored were suddenly seen as vital to the nation's postwar strategic and economic concerns.

Welles significantly shaped America's postwar course, and much of his legacy continued to guide American foreign policy long after his departure from public service. In 1944 delegates from the major Allied powers of the United States, Great Britain, the Soviet Union, and China met once again to discuss plans for a postwar organization to maintain permanent peace and avoid the development of a new conflict.

Welles, his planners, and other people interested on creating a new world order mainly based on the principles of brotherhood, human unity, sharing and cooperation; and on the fundamental rights and freedoms embodied in the Declaration of Human Rights and other of their main objectives were:

- To stimulate and encourage men and women everywhere to establish right human relations between races, religions, nations and classes through intelligent understanding and adequate communication.
- To assist men and women in their studies of world problems, and in the effective application to these problems, cooperation and sharing for the common good.
- To cooperate with other organizations in constructive activities contributing to world unity, stability and right human relations.

Welles however, was not the only interested in creating a new world order, while he worked very hard to fulfill his aims, some programs also were set forth in the United States in order to put a new order in the world. These programs based their principles on rebuild devastated regions especially Europe.



MARSHALL PLAN

The Marshall Plan was also called the European Recovery Plan. It was enacted by the U.S. in 1947 as a way to help rebuild Europe after World War II. The genius behind the plan was George Marshall, who was at the time the U.S. Secretary of State. William Clayton and George Kennan were also credited with writing the majority of the Marshall Plan.

Though part of the Marshall Plan was meant to help the badly damaged Europe recover from WWII, the other part of the Marshall Plan was meant to prevent communism from gaining a stronghold in war torn countries. Certain countries either refused aid or received very little aid. Japan, for example, did not receive aid. Aid was offered to the USSR but was refused.

West Germany received some aid under the Marshall Plan. The UK and France received the most aid, over 200 million each. Other countries receiving funds for reconstruction were Austria, Belgium, Denmark, Greece, Iceland, Italy, the Netherlands, Norway, Portugal, Sweden, Switzerland and Turkey. For the most part these countries represented the allied relationships formed during WWII. However, some countries, like Italy, were part of the Axis forces during the war.

In total the US government spent 13 billion US dollars (USD) from 1948-1951. Some of this money spent was considered part of Germany's debt, since much of the destruction was the result of German invasion and bombing of certain countries. The US was fortunate to have very little damage since it entered the war late, and the contiguous states were largely untouched by the war.

The Marshall Plan did succeed for the most part. It did spur significant economic recovery in countries receiving aid. It is also considered the beginning step toward forming a union of the European Countries. This goal was considered important to the U.S. in the prevention of future multi-national European wars.



The Marshall Plan abruptly ended in 1951 when the US became involved in the Korean conflict. As well, Republicans had gained control of the house and senate in 1950, and many of them disapproved of the plan. With fewer funds to allocate toward European recovery, the Marshall Plan was officially disbanded. There were efforts to extend the plan, but Republicans quickly voted down such efforts.

Though the Marshall Plan succeeded in helping to restore some economies, it could not stem the takeover of communism in certain countries.

UNITED NATIONS RELIEF AND REHABILITATION ADMINISTRATION

The United Nations Relief and Rehabilitation Administration (UNRRA) was established by agreement of 44 nations on 9 November 1943; operations came to an end in the latter part of 1946, with the last staff appointment terminating 31 March 1949. The purpose of UNRRA was to plan, co-ordinate, administer or arrange for the administration of measures for the relief of victims of war in any area under the control of any of the United Nations through the provision of food, fuel, clothing, shelter and other basic necessities, medical and other essential services.

UNRRA provided billions of US dollars of rehabilitation aid, and helped about 8 million refugees. It ceased operations in the Displaced Persons camps of Europe in 1946 and in Asia in 1949, upon which it ceased to exist. Its functions were transferred to several UN agencies, including the International Refugee Organization.

FOUNDING AND AUTHORITY

UNRRA was proposed to the United States Congress by president Franklin Delano Roosevelt on June 9, 1943 to provide relief to areas liberated from Axis powers after World War II. Roosevelt had already obtained the approval of the governments of the United Kingdom, the Soviet Union, and China, and sought



to obtain the endorsement of 40 other governments to form the first "United Nations" organization.

The Agreement for United Nations Relief and Rehabilitation Administration founding document was signed by 44 countries in the White House in Washington, November 9, 1943. UNRRA was headed by a Director-General, and governed by a Council (composed of representatives of all state parties) and a Central Committee (composed of representatives of the U.S., the U.K., Canada, the Republic of China, and the U.S.S.R.). The other countries who signed the agreement included: Australia, Belgium, Bolivia, Brazil, Chile, Colombia, Costa Rica, Cuba, Czechoslovakia, Dominican Republic, Ecuador, Egypt, El Salvador, Ethiopia, the French Committee of National Liberation, Greece, Guatemala, Haiti, Honduras, Iceland, India, Iran, Iraq, Liberia, Luxembourg, Mexico, Netherlands, New Zealand, Nicaragua, Norway, Panama, Paraguay, Peru, Philippines, Poland, South Africa, Uruguay, Venezuela, and Yugoslavia.

Although the UNRRA was called a "United Nations" agency, it was established prior to the founding of the United Nations. The explanation for this is that the term "United Nations" was used at the time to refer to the Allies of World War II, having been originally coined for that purpose by Roosevelt in 1942.

Although initially restricted by its constitution to render aid only to nationals from the United Nations (the Allies), this was changed late in 1944, in response to pleas from Jewish organizations who were concerned with the fate of surviving Jews of German nationality, to also include other persons who had been obliged to leave their country or place of origin or former residence or who had been deported by action of the enemy because of race, religion or activities in favor of the United Nations.

Although UNRRA operated in occupied Germany, primarily operating displaced persons camps, the organization did not render assistance to ethnic Germans.



UNRRA headquarters were in Washington, D.C., and the European Regional Office was set up in London. The organization was subject to the authority of the Supreme Headquarters of the Allied Expeditionary Forces (SHAEF) in Europe and was directed by three Americans during the four years of its existence. Its first director-general was Herbert Lehman (1 January 1944 to 31 March 1946), former governor of New York. He was succeeded by Fiorello La Guardia (1 April to 31 December 1946), former mayor of New York City, who was in turn followed by Major General Lowell Ward Rooks (1 January 1947 to 30 September 1948).

Among the nations the United States was considered as a leader in the creation of a new world order after the Second World War.

5.2 ECUADOR AFTER WORLD WAR TWO

With the end of World War II and the worsening relations between the United States and the Soviet Union, U.S. policy makers came to place the threat they perceived from international communism above all other foreign policy concerns. Some meetings were held in Washington, with all the Latin American ambassadors where the U.S. secretary of state, John Foster Dulles, talked about the Soviet Union menace.

Despite these sessions, few Latin American and Ecuadorian leaders shared the U.S. preoccupation with the Soviet Union. They did not see the Soviets as embarking on a plan of world conquest, and they did not believe that the Soviets had much influence in the Latin American nations. But if U.S. officials seemed to think about only the Soviet Union, Ecuador had a different view. Ecuador officials were deeply concerned about any signs of renewed Peruvian aggression.

Most Ecuadorian officials did not typically shared U.S. perceptions of the threats posed by international communism, Ecuador's leaders nevertheless found great



utility in taking an anti-communist stance. They understood how to play upon U.S. anxieties in order to induce Washington to provide economic and especially military aid. If Ecuador spoke to the United States of a Peruvian menace, it would get no attention, but if Ecuador could somehow maintain, however implausibly, that the weapons it sought were really going to be used for the common defense of the western hemisphere against the threat of international communism, the United States would provide planes, warships, and tanks, as well as guns and ammunitions. Ecuadorian officials knew just what to say.

One of the United States beliefs was that the Soviet Union was constantly probing the world, looking for weaknesses to exploit-that if the West let down its guard anywhere, communism would penetrate. With the broke out of cold war, Ecuador believed that the United States would now pay more attention to it. The United States became more engaged with Ecuador, it cared more about what was going on in Ecuador. The United States began to push its way into Ecuadorian internal affairs, sometimes playing a significant role in shaping political outcomes, and to use its considerably resources to impose its will.

DOMESTIC FOREIGN POLICY

After the war Ecuador's unequal and unfair social situation extended into the nation's politics. Most Ecuadorians did not enjoy suffrage rights, and in 1948, only 9 percent of the population voted. Two decades later only 18 percent did. The difference was that in Ecuador the popular classes were too weak to insist upon incorporation into the politics process.

The elite of Ecuador generally had little but contempt for the *chusma*, the poor, the people of color, the great mass of ordinary women, men and their families. However, economic change was slowly beginning to reconfigure Ecuador's social structure, gradually forming the groups and classes that could apply the most pressure for democratization, opening fissures in elite domination, and prying open the political process.



In the post World War II emerged populism which was separate in two movements, one led by President Jose Maria Velasco Ibarra and the other led by the Guayaquil-based political party the Concentracion de Fuerzas Populares (CFP).

Populist Jose Maria Velasco Ibarra spoke in his campaigns for the presidency of punishing the oligarchy and fighting for the poor, but once in office he showed little interest in real reform. Velasco Ibarra lacked any abiding political philosophy, more interested in gaining office than in actually governing. A political chameleon, Velasco Ibarra sought and obtained the backing of nearly all political groups in Ecuador.

His impact on democratization in Ecuador was ambiguous. In his election campaigns Velasco Ibarra reached out to the previously excluded and ignored, and though they were denied the right to vote, ordinary men and women nevertheless turned out in record numbers to hear Velasco Ibarra's fiery speeches. In this way he raised the popular classes. Once in power, Velasco Ibarra demonstrated that he had little use for democracy. Moreover, he failed to support any significant measures to advance suffrage rights for illiterates in Ecuador.

Velasco Ibarra was barely tolerated and when he went too far in his rhetorical attacks, the rich looked to the obliging military to remove him. The generals for their part would at times support Velasco Ibarra but only if he lavished funding upon them. All told Velasco Ibarra was ousted four times.

Such frequently extralegal changes of government seriously undercut the effort of Ecuador's diplomatic corps. Ecuador was the most unstable nation in Latin America from 1930 to 1948, and diplomats lost their jobs each time the government changed hands, leaving Ecuador in a position of starting over with new people every year or so. However, the years that followed 1948 to 1960, proved a time of relative political stability for Ecuador, something made possible by the sizable increase in government revenues from the banana boom. Export taxes swelled government coffers: national government revenue increased 11.3



percent a year from 1945 to 1955 before slowing to 4.4 percent a year from 1955 and 1960.

Three consecutive leaders, Galo Plaza Lasso (1948-52), Velasco Ibarra again (1952-56), and Camilo Ponce Enriquez (1956-60), each one came to power in reasonably honest elections and completed their full term in office.

Galo Plaza Lasso, a sierra landowner and son of former president Leonidas Plaza, was favorably disposed toward the United States. U.S. educate, Galo Plaza had served as Ecuador's ambassador in Washington D.C. from 1944 to 1946. He opened a period of friendlier relations between the two nations, visiting the United States at the invitation of President Harry Truman in June 1951.

Velasco Ibarra's third presidency was the term of office that he completed, due in large measure to the broad but disorderly public works program he launched. While banana export had increased government income, the treasury still was not large enough to pay for Velasco Ibarra's public works programs. Most projects never got, abandoned shortly after the ground-breaking ceremonies and left forever unfinished, slowly growing over with weeds and forgotten. In 1956, as Velasco Ibarra finished his term, the banana boom was winding down, the government's money was all gone, and the nation was plunging toward bankruptcy. Overall, then, in the postwar period the Ecuadorian landscape was one of economic boom and bust, social inequality and poverty, political exclusion of the popular elements, and some tentative first steps toward democratization.

ECUADOR FOREIGN POLICY IN THE POSTWAR YEAR

After World War II, Ecuador sent representatives to all the principal international forums, at these meetings Ecuador officials with Peru's aggression very much in their minds looked for every opportunity to win respect for international adherence to the rule of law, not the use of force, in the resolution of international relations. Ecuador also used the international forums to advance



the call for economic fairness for underdeveloped nations. At the founding of the United Nations in June 1945, Ecuador's representatives spoke out on behalf of poor nations, putting forward a proposal to consider the economic and social plight of the people of Latin America, especially with respect to the prices that less-developed nation fetched for their products on the world market. After some meetings Ecuador continued press the case for fair prices, emphasizing the declining terms of trade for nations that exported raw materials.

In the postwar period Ecuador sought to reinvigorate friendly relations and cooperating among the nations that had once comprised Gran Colombia: Ecuador, Colombia, Venezuela, and Panama. The goal was to create a larger collective power base for fending off the demands of the United States. For Ecuador a critical foreign issue was the U.S. role as one of four guarantors of the 1942 Rio Protocol that had settled the boundary dispute with Peru. Ecuadorians believe that the United States had somehow forced Ecuador into signing the disastrous Rio treaty. U.S. officials did not understand this complaint and thought that they had been helping Ecuador. By the mid 1940s the United States offered to carry out aerial photography of the remaining forty-seven miles of Amazonian territory left to demarcate. The mapping of this remote region proved a dangerous task, costing the lives of fourteen Americans.

In February 1947, the U.S. aerial photography had revealed a different course of the Cenepa River and it also identified a new mountain spur, the Cordillera del Condor. These findings meant that the 1942 treaty was geographically flawed. Ecuador pounced on this new information and renounced the whole treaty, seizing the opportunity to renew its longstanding demand for an outlet to the Amazon River. Ecuador insisted that Peru withdraw from the dispute territory.

In 1951 new skirmishes broke out along the border, and in Guayaquil a mob attacked the Peruvian consulate. Troubles continued into 1953, leading to the expulsion of the Peruvian ambassador from Quito. In 1955 Ecuadorian leaders feared that Peru was readying an invasion, and Ecuador's ambassador to the



United States, Jose Ricardo Chiriboga Villagomez, went before the Organization of American States (OAS) to deliver an urgent appeal for outside help. Chiriboga alleged that Peru had massed thirty-thousand troops along its border. The guarantor nations quickly dispatched military inspectors to examine the situation. They soon reported that they saw nothing that would support Ecuador's claims: no concentration of Peruvian forces on the border, and the Peruvian navy resting peacefully at port in Callao. Chiriboga, who had given his speech on the orders of the Ministry of Foreign Relations in Quito, felt humiliated. His credibility and of his nation, had been seriously compromised.

When Cold War broke out the United States insisted that all nations in Latin America sever ties with the Soviet Union. However, most Latin American nations had not recognized the Soviet Union, and, in fact they had extended recognition only at the urging of the United States when the Soviets joined the Allied cause during World War II.

Ecuadorian and Latin American leaders believed that during World War II they had been faithful allies of the United States, especially in supplying critical economic support for the Allied war effort. Now that the fighting was over, they believed it was time for them to be repaid for their loyalty and sacrifices. Instead, soon after World War II ended, the United States began to focus its attention on new cold war hot spots in Europe, extending \$12.4 billion in order to help to rebuild the continent. Latin American and Ecuadorian leaders could only look on with considerable bitterness as the United States provided generous assistance for the postwar reconstruction of even Japan and Germany, while the Latin American got next to nothing.

From 1948 to 1958 Latin America received only 2.4 percent of U.S. foreign economic assistance. To the Ecuadorian diplomat Dr. Julio Prado Vallejo, the United States poured money into other nations but ignored Latin America because it did not see a Communist threat there. However, United States often held some meetings to construct an anti-Communist collective security treaty with Latin America.



Ecuador pushed the idea of mutual defense not only against extra-hemispheric attacks but also in the event of intra-hemispheric of aggressions, as for example, Peru against Ecuador. In 1948 Ecuador continued to push for more effective mechanisms to avoid warfare among the American states. Ecuador also raised the issue of the declining terms of trade for Latin America, lobbying for greater fairness for nations that exported raw materials. The latter proposal was popular among the Latin American states but U.S. policy makers were not listening to Latin American critics.

However, one area in which the United States was willing to help Latin American was military aid. Washington wanted to strengthen the Latin American militaries in order to build the hemispheric defense against communism. Although this military aid was very useful for Ecuador against some Peruvian invasion, it was always opposed to any nation that invaded another nation. But the United States wanted more from Ecuador; it wanted Ecuador to send troops to fight in Korea. The United States demanded that Ecuador send eighteen hundred men, offering to pay for the training, equipment, arming, and transport of the battalion. Ecuador refused this blood quota and instead shipped five hundred tons of rice to South Korea.

In 1952, Ecuador became the first Latin American nation to ratify a new liberal military accord with the United States. In exchange for U.S. military aid, Ecuador pledged to halt all trade with the Eastern bloc, help the United States in Korea and in future conflicts, and to use the weapons received only in the fight against international communism, not in wars against their neighbors. Under this bilateral program the number of U.S. military personnel stations in Latin American and Ecuador increased.

Spite all this aid some troubles began to appear, Ambassador Chiriboga saw the United States main objective in Latin America was to create an effective defensive counter force against the threat of Soviet aggressions. But for Ecuador the enemy was Peru not the Soviet Union, and Ecuador looked on with considerable alarms as the United States stepped up its military aid to Peru,



which appeared to get more of everything, planes, ships, submarines, tanks, guns, troop training, three destroyers, etc, while the United States refused to sell Ecuador any of those armaments. The reason was that Peru paid for much of the military hardware it received with cash, while Ecuador always bought on credit. The Ecuadorian typically lacked the funds to buy U.S. weapons, planes, and could not afford to properly maintain the equipment it did receive. Ecuador found little comfort in the State Department's bland assurances that the United States would never permit Peru to attack Ecuador.

In addition, the World War II Lend-Lease agreement had brought the transfer of \$6 million-worth of military equipment to Ecuador. After the war the United States asked for only \$575,000 in repayment; however, Ecuador did not send any money and Ecuadorian authorities said they had lost the paperwork, so U.S. officials sent new copies. Ecuadorian officials suggested they could perhaps pay off the debt during the next ten or fifteen years, making payments in Ecuadorian sucres, not in dollars, but the U.S. Treasury Department rejected the proposal and the final agreement about World War II Lend-Lease debt to the United States would be paid in dollars for the next several years.

So while some loans came to Ecuador, they were never as large as what other Latin American nations received, never big enough to match Ecuadorian needs, and seemed in the end only to generate misunderstandings and disputes. Total U.S. government loans and grants to Ecuador amounted to \$661 million, 2 percent of the Latin American total. Moreover, the relatively smaller sums Ecuador did receive came with strings. Ecuador's ambassador to the United States, Jose R, Chriboga Villagomez, defiantly vowed in a meeting with U.S. State Department officials that Ecuador would not and could not permit to dictate the economic development policies of the country. But Chiriboga was wrong about this. Ecuador was paying for external aid with increasing losses to its authority.



5.3 AN ECONOMIC VIEW

For Ecuador the decades after World War II brought significant economic growth, although the country suffered some serious financial reverses along the way. Ecuador's gross domestic product (GDP) saw an average annual increase of 2.9 percent from 1950 to 1973, a rate faster than that of most Latin American nations and faster even than the GDP of the United States.

From 1944 to 1949 the Ecuadorian GDP grew at an annual rate of 5.2 percent. U.S. products dominated Ecuador's imports and in 1949 Ecuador bought 70 percent of its imports from the United States, receiving principally manufacturing, chemicals, and oil. But by 1952 the U.S. share of Ecuador's imports had dropped to 65 percent. By 1964 it was 46 percent and in 1967, 40 percent. Nevertheless, Ecuadorians maintained a taste for certain things American. They liked Hollywood movies and some U.S. movies stars decorated the pages of Ecuadorian newspapers.

Ecuador's exports rose considerably in the postwar period, quadrupling from 1941 to 1948, with rice and cacao shipments. High prices for rice and cacao exports on international markets raised the value of Ecuador's exports from \$23.6 million in 1945 to \$43.6 million in 1948. After 1949, however, competition in rice production from the United States, Egypt, and Italy glutted world markets, and Ecuador, which was using outdated and inefficient farming methods and producing lower-quality rice, could not compete. Cacao exports showed a similar pattern. Ecuadorian cacao sales initially rose in the postwar, but by 1949 prices had declined on international markets. Ecuador's exports fell in value by more than half from 1948 to 1949.

Beginning in the 1950s, however, Ecuador emerged as the world's leading producer of bananas, the growing sales bringing a new age of prosperity to the nation. The emergence of banana production in Ecuador was swift. The country had not even exported bananas before 1934, and a decade later bananas still accounted for less than 1 percent of exports. But as U.S. consumer demand for



bananas rose in the postwar period and production in Central America and the Caribbean declined, the way opened for Ecuador.

Beginning 1940s devastating hurricanes reduced production in Mexico, Nicaragua, Cuba, and Haiti. From 1945 to 1955 banana production in Central America and the Caribbean remained stagnant, while global demand, chiefly from the United States, rose 35 percent. Banana prices rose steadily in the 1940s and into the early 1950s.

Ecuadorians saw opportunity in this situation, and bananas trees soon spread across the Ecuadorian coastal lowlands, especially around Machala in the Coastal region south of Guayaquil. Exports rose dramatically, with two-thirds of banana shipments headed for the United States. In 1945 Ecuador exported 18,000 tons of bananas; in 1955, 631,000 tons; in 1959, 886,000' and in 1964, 1.2 million tons of bananas. By 1951 bananas had become Ecuador's leading export, and by 1953 Ecuador was the world's top producer, in some years selling nearly a third of the world total.

Rising banana productions stimulated other developments in Ecuador. Before the 1950s Ecuador had no real national highway system, but as banana farms spread beyond the rivers and into the coastal jungles, the government cut new roads, providing access and bringing more areas under production. The Ecuadorian government, using money borrowed from the United States for road construction, built 2.175 miles of highway between 1944 and 1967. Ecuador also used money borrowed from the U.S. government to add new port facilities to handle the rising trade in bananas and the flood of imports that arrived in return.

In Ecuador the fruit was grown mostly on medium-sized and small farms. By 1964 Ecuador had about three thousand banana farms. But if domestic growers dominated production, large farms still played the central role in the marketing of bananas such us Standard Fruit and United Fruit from the United States, and the Noboa group from Ecuador. These companies laid claim to the lion's share



of the profits, leaving all the production risks but little of the money to the small and medium- sized growers.

As Ecuador's banana sales grew, United Fruit Company constructed a massive complex in Tenguel. The company showered its workers with benefits, providing low-cost housing; pure drinking water; subsidized meat, rice, and milk, and even set up sports teams, paying for everything-the fields, the balls, and the uniforms. United Fruit also opened a first-rate hospital for workers in Tenguel. Workers received sick leave and paid vacations.

But while the banana boom brought commercial success for Tenguel, export companies, some products, and others in Ecuador, the nation as a whole had little progress toward industrialization. Of course, Ecuador could not really have done much to advance in this direction. Like other small poor nations, Ecuador did not have an adequate domestic market. Nevertheless, Ecuador tried some state-directed attempts at industrialization during the 1950s. Following the recommendations of the United Nation's Economic Commission for Latin America, Ecuador adopted the Import Substitution Industrialization model, a policy direction it followed ever more closely in the early 1960s. As a consequence, more light industry appeared, centered in Guayaquil and Quito. Yet compared with the rest of Latin America, the Ecuadorian impulse toward industrialization was feeble. For Latin America as a whole, industry's contribution to GDP expanded from 17 percent in 1940 to 25 percent in 1970, but in Ecuador it remained stagnant, at 16 percent of GDP in 1940, rising to only 17 percent in 1970. The banana boom would come and go, generating riches for a time, favoring some but not most, and leaving the structure of the Ecuadorian economy essentially unchanged.

In 1959 the banana boom came to an end and discontent surfaced in Ecuadorian politics again. Within a year, the effects of the discontent were exploited by the keen populist Velasco, who was elected by his widest margin of victory ever over Camilo Ponce Enríquez, whose administration had the misfortune of governing when the country entered its latest economic decline.



JUNTAS AND POLITICAL INSTABILITY

The 1960's commenced with a new economic depression, which in turn initiated a new political crisis, including several military interventions in the political arena. Despite Velasco's rhetoric, his fourth term as president only deepened the economic crisis he promised to resolve. By 1961, Velasco had lost all public support and was forced into exile by a Junta led by his vice-president, Carlos Julio Arosemena Monroy.

In early 1963, Arosemena fell victim to the same military leaders that helped him secure the presidency from Velasco. The return of political chaos ended conjecture that Ecuador's political system had developed into a sustainable democracy.

The Military Junta that deposed Arosemena governed until Ecuador's flagging economy and wide spread protest sparked by their fiscal policy, forced them to step down. The day after the Junta vacated the Government, Clemente Yeroivi Indaburu, a banana grower and former minister of economy, became provisional president of the troubled state. In October, following the passage of a new constitution, Otto Arosemena Gómez, a cousin of Carlos Julio, was elected as the second provisional president. After 20 months of provisional rule Ecuador held popular elections for president. Incredibly, the now seventy-five years old Velasco won his fifth term.

Weakness characterized Velasco's final term as president. After enduring months of criticism from Congress, his cabinet and even his vice-president, on June 22, 1970, Velasco dismissed Congress and the Supreme Court and assumed dictatorial powers and subsequently ordered several extremely unpopular economic measures.

Velasco had remained in power despite his weakness because of the support of the military; his nephew, General Jorje Acosta Velasco, was minister of defense. However, Acosta was sent to Madrid as ambassador following a failed attempt to oust the commandant of the Quito military, Velasco was left to the



mercy of the high command who quickly overthrow him before he completed his last term in 1972.

The 1970s again brought economic prosperity to Ecuador. The nationalist military regime that seized power in 1972 used Ecuador's new oil wealth and foreign borrowing to pay for a program of industrialization and land reform. Despite its success and early promises that it would be a long-term rather than interim government, the Junta that usurped Velasco resigned in 1976 and a new military Junta was formed with the objective of bringing Ecuador back to democracy.

As we know during the Second World War Ecuador joined the Allies Powers. On January 29, 1942 Ecuador announced its break in relations with Axis countries.

On February 1, only days after Ecuador broke relations with the Axis, the U.S. promised financial aid to Ecuador for improvements in canals for delivery of water, for agriculture, and for health improvements.

5.4 A SOCIAL VIEW

Ecuadorians had different reactions during and after the Second World War. People worried the most about the exile of some German-Ecuadorian during the world.

For anyone reading the Ecuadorian newspapers at the time, the cooperation with the United States had to be considered, at the very least, suspicious.

On February 2 the logical government response was to intern more Italians and Germans in Riobamba because "they are ordered to leave, to move to the center of the Republic, and to be subject to any arrangements that the Government feels is necessary to take" (February 1, *El Mercurio*). Five days later the undersecretary of the Ecuadorian Chancellery reported that all Ecuadorians residing in Germany would enjoy complete freedom in the territories of the Reich (*El Mercurio*). The suggestion was that Ecuadorian



citizens caught behind enemy lines might someday return home, but the statement was also an uncomfortable one for Ecuadorian wives and children of Germans citizens who feared they might be deported. According to the Constitution in force, Ecuadorian women who married foreigners lost their Ecuadorian citizenship. Ecuadorian families now worried about daughters and grandchildren who might be "deported" or "repatriated" along with international spouses. Families were at stake. Allegiances were at stake. As the business activities of international families came under scrutiny, so did generations of Ecuadorian-born citizens of international heritage.

In a sounding about public opinion fulfilled in the 80s, only the 6% of the Ecuadorians declared to know that their country had had any kind of participation in the Second World War. Less than the 1 % identified the areas in which the War had had the incident in the national life.

After the Second World War in 1946 there was also one of the most outstanding events in the world that was the construction of the Berlin Wall. From Quito to Berlin there are 10, 150 kilometers in straight line; but the impact of the conflagration wasn't because of it less sensible in Ecuador, although on indirect ways.

In that way the Ecuador had its indirect participation on the Second World War.



CONCLUSION

World War II was the largest and most violent armed conflict in the history of mankind. However, the half century that now separates us from that conflict has exacted its toll on our collective knowledge. While World War II continues to absorb the interest of military scholars and historians, as well as its veterans, a generation of Americans has grown to maturity largely unaware of the political, social, and military implications of a war that, more than any other united us as a people with a common purpose.

The Second World War left a high number of dead people. The most outstanding numbers were suffered in the Soviet Union, Germany, and Japan. Also, a lot of cities and towns from Europe and Japan were almost destroyed. In the same way, the War also left an economic deficit in which Europe was mainly affected.

At the end of the Second World War the most powerful nation, the United States, helped with the reconstruction of the countries that were destroyed during the War.

Latin American countries, as a sign of solidarity, sent food and some other resources, which only existed in big amounts in those places, to the European countries devastated during the war.

Ecuador had an important participation during this war; because of it, the United States helped Ecuador, especially economically. However, the negative aspect was that Ecuador became dependent of the United States; maybe Ecuador thought that being allied to a powerful country would make it easier to get a better international position all around the world.

Highly relevant today, World War II has much to teach us, not only about the profession of arms, but also about military preparedness, global strategy, and combined operations in the coalition war against fascism.



RECOMMENDATIONS

- The most powerful countries should not spend a lot of money in the creation of new weapons, thinking only about wars, but they should join their power in order to change the world into a better place for humanity.
- The United States should not provide help only during war time, as it happened with Ecuador during World War II, but its aid should be constant and without any kind of interest.
- It is necessary to establish a political, regional, and international unity which concentrates its resources on the development of a country.
- It is important to make an Ecuadorian market which is competitive with other international markets and to establish a new political-economic system.
- As we know, during World War II the United States did not help Ecuador because of friendship but because of its own interests without letting the Ecuadorian government make its own decisions, as it happened with the Exile of Ecuadorian-German people. Although Ecuador is a small country, it should protect its territory, its people, and its sovereignty without the influence of the biggest and most powerful countries.



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GLOSSARY

CHAPTER I

ATLANTIC CHARTER

A declaration of post World War II aims issued by British Prime Minister Winston Churchill and U.S. President Franklin D. Roosevelt on August 14, 1941, before the United States entry into the war. It was created during a five-day conference held between the two men aboard ship in the North Atlantic. It was the predecessor of the United Nations Declaration. This declaration expressed important objectives for a postwar world and it acquired authority on January 1, 1942 when twenty-six countries signed the United Nations Declaration, which included among its provisions formal endorsement of the charter.

BATTLE OF FRANCE

In World War II, the Battle of France, also known as the Fall of France, was the German invasion of France and the Low Countries executed from May 10, 1940. The battle consisted of two main operations; the first one, Fall Gleb (Case Yellow), and the second operation, called Fall Rot (Case Rod). For the Axis, the campaign was a spectacular victory.

EXECUTIVE ORDER 9066

An order signed by President Franklin D. Roosevelt on February 19, 1942, after the attack on Pearl Harbor, to authorize military areas from which any or all persons may be excluded. It led to the internment and relocation to the interior of the United States of nearly 120,000 Japanese-Americans and Japanese nationals living on the West Coast. The government justified the order on the grounds that racial ties could cause disloyalty and it was a big threat to American security during war. The camps were closed in late 1945.



GREAT DEPRESSION

The Great Depression was the longest and most severe business slump in U.S. history. It began with the collapse of share and other security prices. Thousands of banks and 100.000 businesses failed. Industrial production was reduced to one-half of its normal rate; income from farming was cut by more than one-half. Salaries dropped 60 percent, new investments went down 90 percent and 25 percent of all workers were unemployed.

JOHNSON DEBT DEFAULT ACT (April 13, 1934)

After the failure of European nations to honor their World War I debts to the U.S. after the Hoover-debt moratorium, Congress forbade government loans to any foreign country delinquent in its war obligations. By June 15, 1934, when the U.S. was owed over \$22 billion (including future interest charges), all foreign countries had defaulted on their loans except Finland, which later paid in full. The Johnson Act was an expression of U.S. isolationism, which failed to recognize that a major reason why Europeans could not honor their debts was the Hawley—Smoot Tariff's exclusion of their exports from U.S. markets.

KELLOGG-BRIAND PACT

The Kellogg-Briand Pact, also known as the Pact of Paris, was a treaty that attempted to outlaw war. This treaty was drafted by France and the United States. The treaty was based on the hope that policy and the weight of world opinion would be powerful enough to prevent nations from resorting to the use of force. In addition, it was considered a big milestone in the effort to advance the cause of international peace.

LEND LEASE BILL

The Lend Lease bill (*H.R. 1776*) gave the President broad powers to "sell, transfer title to, exchange, lease, lend or otherwise dispose of" items to other countries if he decided they were not vital to national security. In so doing, the United State became, as Roosevelt stated, "the great arsenal of democracy."



At its peak, the Lend Lease program assisted 38 countries and made \$48 billion available. England received the largest share. After the war, most of the debts were cancelled. Only about \$8 billion was ever actually repaid and most of that came from England and France. The Soviet Union foreshadowed its Cold War hostility towards the United States by refusing to repay its portion.

MEIJI RESTORATION

The term referred to both the events of 1868 that led to the “restoration” of power to the emperor and the entire period of revolutionary changes that coincided with the Meiji, reign name of the Emperor of Japan 1867 to 1912; his given name was Mutsuhito.

PHONY WAR

A name for the early months of World War II marked by no major hostilities. The term was used to describe the six-month period (October 1939-March 1940) during which no land operations was undertaken by the Allies or the Germans after the German conquest of Poland in September 1939.

STATUS QUO

A commonly-used form of the original Latin “statu quo” literally “the state in which” is a Latin term meaning the current or existing state of affairs. To maintain the status quo is to keep the things the way they presently are.

TRIPARTITE PACT

The Tripartite Pact, also called the Three-Power Pact, Axis Pact, Three-way Pact or Tripartite Treaty was a pact signed in Berlin, Germany on September 27, 1940, which established the Axis Powers of World War II. The pact was signed by representatives of Germany (Adolf Hitler), Italy (Foreign Minister Galeazzo Ciano) and Japan (Ambassador Saburo Kurusu).



The three nations agreed that for the next ten years they would "stand by and co-operate with one another in... their prime purpose to establish and maintain a new order of things... to promote the mutual prosperity and welfare of the peoples concerned." They recognized each other's spheres of interest and undertook "to assist one another with all political, economic and military means when one of the three contracting powers is attacked" by a country not already involved in the war, excluding the Soviet Union.

The pact supplemented the previous German-Japanese Agreement and the Anti-Comintern Pact, both of 1936, and helped overcome the rift that had developed between Japan and Germany following the Molotov-Ribbentrop Pact signed by Germany and the Soviet Union in 1939.

The Tripartite Pact was subsequently joined by Hungary (November 20, 1940), by Romania (November 23, 1940), by Slovakia (November 24, 1940), by Bulgaria (March 1, 1941, prior to the arrival of German troops), by Yugoslavia (March 25, 1941) and by Croatia (June 15, 1941).

YALTA CONFERENCE

An important conference attended by President Franklin D. Roosevelt, British Prime Minister Winston Churchill, and Russian Marshall Joseph Stalin in early February 1945, in the Black Sea port city of Yalta. This conference discussed the postwar administration of Europe where the Allied forces had pushed Nazi Germany to the brink of collapse and all sides recognized that the end of World War II was imminent.

CHAPTER II

COMMUNISM

A social, political, and economic system characterized by the revolutionary struggle to create a society which has an absence of classes, and the common



ownership of the means of production and subsistence and centralized governmental control over the economy.

DICTATOR

A ruler who has absolute authority and supreme jurisdiction over the government of a state; especially one who is considered tyrannical or oppressive.

ELITISM

Philosophy - that a narrow clique of the "best" or "most skilled" members of a given social group should have the power.

FACISM

A philosophy or system of government that advocates or exercises a dictatorship of the extreme right, typically through the merging of state and business leadership, together with an ideology of belligerent nationalism.

HIERARCHY

A body of persons organized or classified according to rank, capacity, or authority.

IDEOLOGY

The body of ideas reflecting the social needs and aspirations of an individual, group, class, or culture.

LEFT-WING

As used in this chapter, individuals and groups who desire to reform or overthrow the established order and advocate change in the name of greater freedom or well-being of the common man.



NAZISM

The ideology and policies of Adolf Hitler and his National Socialist German Worker's Party from 1921 to 1945.

PROPAGANDA

The systematic spreading of a given doctrine or of allegations reflecting its views and interests.

RIGHT-WING

As used in this chapter, individuals or groups who profess opposition to change in the established order and who favor traditional attitudes and practices, and who sometimes advocate the forced establishment of an authoritarian political order.

TOTALITARIANISM

A form of government in which all societal resources are monopolized by the state in an effort to penetrate and control all aspects of public and private life, through the state's use of propaganda, terror, and technology.

CHAPTER IV

CINCHONA

An Ecuadorian tree; its bark acts as a powerful tonic, and it is a remedy for malaria diseases.

HEGEMONY

It is the political, economic, ideological or cultural power exerted by a dominant group over other groups, regardless of the explicit consent of the latter.

QUININE



Its name comes from the Peruvian Indian word “kina” meaning “bark of the tree” referring to the cinchona tree. Quinine is a large and complex molecule and until World War II, it was an effective treatment for malaria.

RADICAL LIBERAL PARTY

It is a liberal party in Ecuador and the oldest existing political party in this country. All liberal parties emphasize individual rights.



ANNEXS



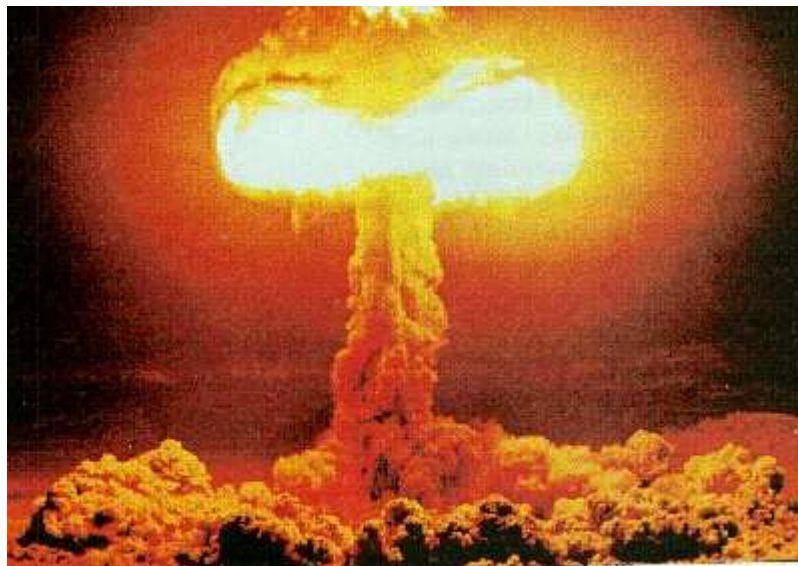
ANNEX 1: Germany attacked Poland on September 1, 1939. It was published in the newspapers.



ANNEX 2: Attack on Pearl Harbor. December 1, 1941.



ANNEX 3: Burning ships in Pearl Harbor.



ANNEX 4: A nuclear mushroom cloud rises above the city of Nagasaki.



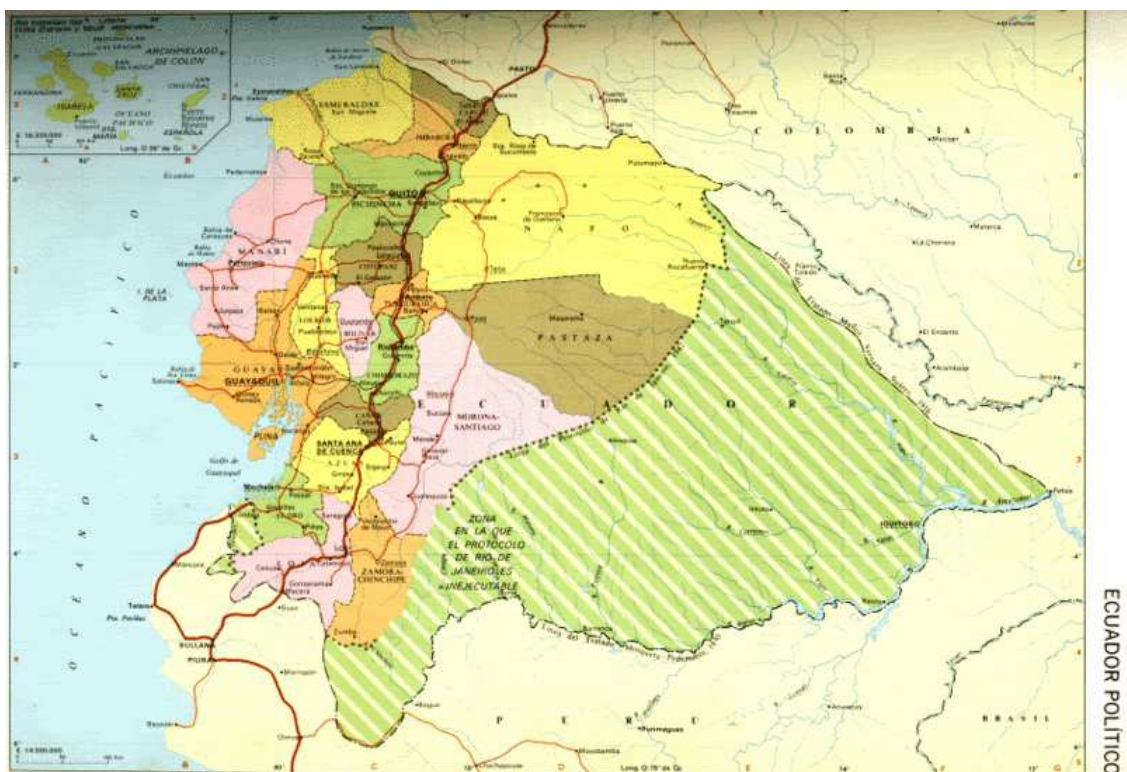
ANNEX 5: A nuclear weapon "LITTLE Boy" type, the uranium gun-type detonated over Hiroshima. It is 28 inches in diameter and 120 inches long. "Little Boy" weighed about 9,000 pounds and had a yield approximating 15,000 tons of high explosives.



ANNEX 6: A nuclear weapon of the "Fat Man" type, the plutonium implosion type detonated over Nagasaki. 60 inches in diameter and 128 inches long, the weapon weighed about 10,000 pounds and had a yield approximating 21,000 tons of high explosives.



ANNEX 7: Adolf Hitler.



ANNEX 8: Ecuador during the Rio Protocol. The white and green stripes represent the territory that Ecuador lost with the sign of the Rio Protocol.